

The Bulletin of Secondary Schools Programs

Volume 25

October, 1941

Number 100

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The Secondary School In These Times



Descriptive articles on what secondary schools are

doing today to adapt, adjust and enlarge

their programs in meeting the needs

of the nation and its youth

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The Bulletin

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**THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF
SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS**

Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary Walter E. Hess, Managing Editor
1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Our Schools Answer the Nation's Call

The first year of training for defense industries conducted at the request of the Federal Government was completed on July first. A recapitulation has been made by educational officials from the National Education Association, the American Vocational Association, and the American Association of School Administrators of the services performed to the Nation during this year.

The schools of our nation have had an all-out service program.

1. Our schools have trained more than a million and a half persons for defense industries. This is more than twice the number which education promised to train with funds allotted by Congress.

2. More than 10,000 city and rural schools have been mobilized to give defense training.

3. The 142 colleges of engineering (90%) have given short-course training to more than 110,000 engineers.

4. The schools in more than 500 communities have adopted the motto, "We never close," in order to use the vocational school 24 hours a day.

5. Our schools have given training to half of all the workers hired by expanding aircraft industries.

6. Through the schools more than 50,000 WPA workers, have been helped to leave relief rolls and enter defense industries.

7. The schools have provided vocational defense training at the low average of 21 cents per man-hour.

8. These schools have operated this program at an over-head cost to the Federal Government of approximately 1%.

9. The schools boards of the nation have made available to the Federal Government an investment of \$1,000,000 in school buildings and equipment.

10. The school administrators and teachers have served many hours beyond their regular period of day-time employment to carry the defense program forward.

11. This achievement on defense training in our schools is an equally impressive record of the efforts of thousands of regular school employees to preserve and strengthen our democracy.

12. Defense training programs have been planned and carried forward by the schools with the advice and counsel of more than 1,000 state and local advisory committees equally representing labor and employers.

13. Approximately 3,500 labor leaders and 3,500 industrial leaders with the counsel of more than 5,000 consultants representing NYA, WPA, and local employment services have worked with the schools in the development of a training program for the best interests of the local communities and the nation

14. The training responsibilities have been unified in the official education arm of the Government, The United States Office of Education.

Education stands on its record.

Education pledges its resources to a continued effort in answering any call with a full measure of devoted and loyal service to the Nation!

The Fundamentals of a Program for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*

CLIFFORD LEE BROWNE

*Professor of Physical Education, Teachers College, Columbia University
New York City*

Since 1920, at least a score of national committees have attempted to set forth the purposes of objectives of education in accordance with the biological and sociological pathways which control human life. It is significant to point out that health or physical fitness and recreation or wholesome leisure-time pursuits have been included in every list of objectives which has gained public as well as educational approval.

We have accepted the point of view, at least academically, that no subject or program is basic, core, or fundamental unless that subject or program makes vital contributions to the pattern of improved living and human happiness. No subject or program is to enjoy this exalted position by divine right or other pseudonym. Any program worth offering at all is essential; and from among those approved, who knows which ones are of greatest educational value?

While the method for planning subject-matter areas is significant, it is of greater importance that all members of the staff understand the steps to be taken in arriving at materials to be used. To this end, one plan is suggested: first of all, each principal, with the assistance of his staff and others, determines the goals of education to be sought in the particular school; second, a decision is reached with respect to the areas of activity needed to attain these goals; third, objectives for each area are proposed which show the precise contribution of this area to the total pattern, and these objectives are co-ordinated with those of other areas; and fourth, the selection of subject matter comes next, not on the basis of tradition, but rather on the basis of significance and adaptability. Thus, subject matter is regarded as merely the vehicle which carries the load of the objective.

The discussion thus far would seem to indicate the impossibility of setting forth national or state objectives for health and physical education, or for any other program. With the increased emphasis on planning by schools, many persons seriously question the advisability of planning objectives and activities for all of the schools within a single district. Perhaps we shall come to believe—if we haven't done so already—that the individual school is the largest single unit which may be organized effectively.

Obviously, health, physical education, and recreation serve as an integral part of the school organization. Sometimes the principal regards health,

*An address before the joint session of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, The NEA Convention, Boston, Massachusetts, June 30, 1941.

physical education, and recreation as step-children and allows them to develop in whatever direction they will. Some academic teachers—too highly specialized perhaps—continue to support the dualism of mind and body despite all modern evidence to the contrary. Under these conditions, the physical educator, blackballed from the educational fraternity, may turn from the austere classical atmosphere of the classroom and find temporary but usually fickle solace for his athletic program among the downtown coaches. The teacher of modern dance, believing that she must justify her work, may shroud the real outcomes of her program in the palatable but obtuse phrases of creative expression, creative art, or release from residual neuro-muscular hypertension!

The illustrations of athletics and modern dance are purposely selected. We believe wholeheartedly in both of them; both have their places in the secondary-school curriculum. The place and extent of athletics and the modern dance is to be determined by the specific contributions which each makes to the complete educational program. The principal and his physical educators have the responsibility of understanding the precise way in which each activity fits into the educational pattern.

Thus far, we have attempted to set the stage by reviewing a few general principles as they apply to the program of health, physical education, and recreation.

1. Fundamentals are built on a foundation of mutual understanding and fabricated out of mutual confidence and respect.
2. Subjects or programs are to be organized around the living interests of children and adults.
3. An acceptable subject or program must make vital contributions to the pattern of improved living and human happiness.
4. The principal serves as the co-ordinator of the various programs offered and represents the one person best qualified to effect an articulated program of education within the school.

We have said that the ultimate goal of education is human happiness, and that all programs in the school should be directed toward that end. If our educational theory has been sound, would it not appear that our first concern in education is the perpetuation of those ideals upon which American democracy is founded? Should not the personnel of the school search out the objectives and activities which contribute to this worthy cause, and re-consecrate their efforts to the fulfillment of this national task? What have health, physical education, and recreation to offer?

PROBLEMS OF THE SCHOOL

Some months ago there were seated about a conference table in Washington, D. C., men of importance. These men had been summoned to propose ways and means of directing education toward national defense. One representative said, "As I view this program of national defense, there are three main problems for the schools and colleges. Other problems are important but not so vital. The main problems are: first, health and physical fitness; second, recreational interests and skills; and third, morale. And," he

continued, "I am quite sure that national morale is best cultivated through the development of robust health and recreational interests among youth."

The threat of war directs the thoughtful citizen to ask: Are the Army and Navy big enough and strong enough? Can industry be geared and stay geared to quantity production? Have we sufficient raw materials? How about the man power, is it ready and willing? What of national pride and patriotism, will they stand the test? In the answers to these questions reside the all-important balance between success and failure.

In America, strong, fast ships are being constructed in record time. Military and naval posts have been erected or re-conditioned. Airplanes and other fighting equipment are being produced in enormous quantities. Industry, organized and streamlined, must follow the mandates of commanding authority. Most raw materials are available in abundance. Such national resources are relatively easy to marshal to the cause of preserving our democratic form of government.

WHAT OF OUR HUMAN RESOURCES

But, what of our human resources? It is extremely difficult to produce a great nation of citizens who possess health in abundance, whose sinews are toughened to the demands of physical and mental hardships, and in whom have been kindled the ideals of national unity, solidarity, and regard for democratic freedom. These human virtues, although of paramount importance, cannot be acquired in a few months of intensive training. They represent the fruits of heredity, and an environment which boasts of good homes, good schools, good churches, and good government.

The situation today compels us to re-evaluate education, especially in the area of health, physical education, and recreation. The speaker mentioned earlier, who proposed health, recreational skills, and morale as the chief purpose of education today, gave us food for thought.

Our problem of assuring complete preparedness is greatly complicated by observable weaknesses in the health and physical stamina of our citizens. This problem cannot be solved by clinging to an old curriculum wherein attention is focused only upon academic achievement, notwithstanding the value of this goal. A new emphasis is demanded. A different point of view must prevail.

Any acceptable concept of education must look beyond military preparedness. Educators must see American life in terms of national peace and social progress, as well as in terms of military strife and wholesale destruction. Wars now raging must end in time, but the need for health, vigor, patriotism, and belief in democratic ideals will survive. The human virtues of physical courage, stamina, endurance, co-operation, and faith in our leaders are desirable traits in peace as well as war, in women as well as men.

It seems appropriate to propose that our schools become, ever increasingly, vital centers for the education of our youth in health, physical education, and recreation. During and immediately after the World War, laws were passed in thirty-six states providing for school instruction in health and physical education. Almost universally, these laws have not been obeyed.

Reasons for this failure are many. Frequently, school administrators, although giving vocal allegiance to the need for educating the "whole child," have followed the educational pattern of tradition and supported intellectual pursuits. Opposition to the school assuming its true responsibility in the development of health and physical welfare has been expressed by taxpayers who either relegate such matters to fond but often-times unqualified parents in the home, or regard physical stamina, endurance, and recreational interests as unworthy of educational prominence. Certain medical and recreational groups outside the school have viewed with alarm the attempts made by the school to provide adequately for health protection and the practice of leisure-time skills.

The present world crisis calls for a renewed, if not new, emphasis on physical fitness. Numerous colleges recently have applied for Reserve Officer Training Corps units. The number of Junior Reserve Officer Training Corps units in our public secondary schools has been increased but slightly only because military authorities have refused to release properly trained military personnel for this work. The National Committee on Defense, sponsored jointly by the National Education Association and the American Council on Education, is planning, as part of its educational program, ways of ensuring better health and physical fitness. State departments of education have organized special committees to study the problem of increasing strength and endurance among boys and girls attending the public schools. Several colleges have extended their programs of health and physical education, requiring all students to devote at least one hour per day, four days a week, to body building and conditioning activities. The College Directors Society has prepared suggestions for a program of health and physical education which aims to improve the strength and stamina of college men. Several boards of education have established school camps as a regular part of the school program. The American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation—a department of the National Education Association—is supporting a bill before Congress in Washington, which, if passed, will provide funds to be distributed among local boards of education throughout the states for health and physical education, recreation, and school camps.

THE PROGRAM OUTLINED

An adequate program of health, physical education, and recreation is not difficult to present in outline form. The adequate program will include:

1. Provisions for a complete health examination for all students with a psychiatric examination if necessary, each community to decide whether these examinations can best be given by the family physician and dentist, board of health personnel, or by physicians and dentists employed by the school. Controversy exists at present relative to the allocation of this responsibility. Under our present methods, which largely delegate health care to the individual and his family, it seems reasonable to propose that the health examination of school children be the responsibility of the family physician and dentist. Indigent cases, determined by the authorized social welfare agencies in the community

and not by the schools, should be guided by the agency to an appropriate place for the examination. The school's responsibility here is to encourage children and parents to follow the program outlined by the authorized welfare agency, or to go to their physician and dentist.

2. Provisions for an adequate follow-up program which emphasizes student, parental, and community responsibility in surgical relief, medical, and dental care to ensure a high degree of physical welfare. It is doubtful if public-school funds ever should be used for the correction of defects or for treatment. Present methods indicate that these matters are functions to be assumed by the family in co-operation with the family physician and dentist, or by the family in co-operation with the authorized welfare agency mentioned above. The school's responsibility here is to build public opinion so that everyone will have adequate treatment.
3. Provisions for a healthful school environment, such as optimal conditions with respect to ventilation, heating, lighting, furniture, lavatory facilities, rest rooms, discipline, and arrangement of the school day to avoid fatigue and to engender proper habits of work and play. The school environment is the complete responsibility of school authorities.
4. Instruction in public health, including the prevention of communicable disease, vaccines, serum, and antitoxin therapy.
5. Instruction in the minimum essentials of diet and nutrition; personal cleanliness; daily elimination; the deleterious effects of alcohol, tobacco, and narcotics; the deleterious effects of exercises of speed, endurance, and strength upon the circulatory, respiratory, muscular, digestive, endocrine, and nervous systems of the body; the proper care of the eyes, ears, nose, throat, skin, and other organs; the essentials of mental hygiene; and the importance of desirable boy and girl relationships.
6. Instruction and practice in safety education, including first aid.
7. Instruction and practice in a wide variety of physical activities within the "ability-to-succeed" range of participants that will ensure strength, poise, good posture, physical fitness, and pride in personal appearance and performance. Such instruction may be given in the gymnasium, swimming pools, playgrounds, athletic fields, and in summer camps conducted by schools.

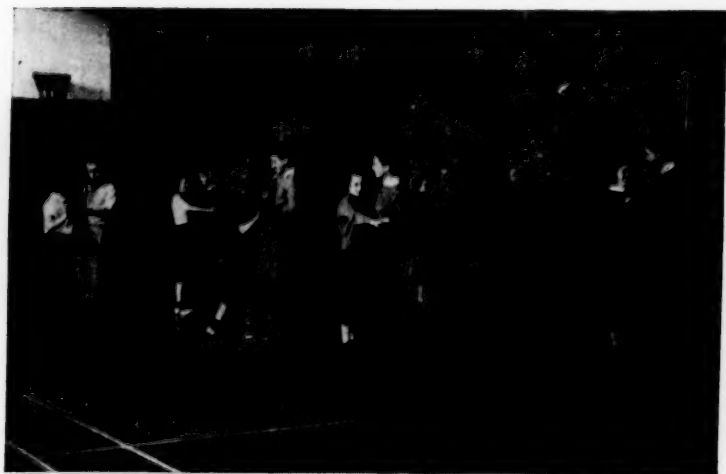
To strengthen the programs of health, physical education, and recreation, some communities will need better equipment and facilities. In others, improvement in personnel is indicated. And most programs will require, as a basic necessity, increased financial support and time allotment.

Within the school there must be co-ordination of efforts. The superintendent and principal will pave the way by effective administrative policies and procedures. All specialists in the school, such as nurses, dental hygienists, nutritionists, health teachers, science teachers, personnel in household arts and sciences, physical educators and athletic coaches will assume greater responsibilities in their respective fields.

The success of this undertaking does not rest entirely with school people. Parents, government officials, and the general public must be advised of the needs and progress of the educational program, their co-operation enlisted, and their support obtained.



Students Learn Fundamental Rhythms and Techniques in the Modern Interpretative Dance Program at the Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts. This creative activity develops healthy bodies through graceful exercise.



The New Trier Township High School of Winnetka, Illinois, provides co-education classes in Health and Physical Education. Dancing is one of the many activities included in the program that has proved interesting as well as valuable to the pupils.

The Administration of a Worth-while Program of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation*

OSCAR Y. GAMEL

Principal of Chestnut Junior High School, Springfield, Massachusetts

We are told by the President that one-third of the people of our nation are ill-fed, ill-housed, and ill-clothed. We are told by nationally-known specialists in nutrition that many millions of our people suffer from malnourishment. We are told that thirty to fifty per cent of the young men examined for the armed forces are being rejected because of physical deficiencies. We are told that only one in five of our young people has an acceptable systematic program of recreation. We know that the diet of our people, rich and poor, is woefully inadequate for physical fitness.

It is not comforting to reflect that once again it has taken a great national emergency to wake us up to the fact that the health status of the people of this country are not in keeping with our proud boast of being the richest nation in the world. The newspaper accounts of the past months giving the results of the medical examinations of the young men called into military service by the Selective Service Act have accomplished more in the way of disturbing our complacency regarding the physical fitness of the people of the nation than specialists and workers in health education have been able to do over a much longer period with scholarly reports of careful research and conscientious effort by the public schools and other agencies.

It is not through any lack of stated perception that we are today confronted with the problem of great health deficiencies. The Associations under whose auspices we are meeting today and others have for years put health at the top of the list of objectives of education. Long ago we put down—on paper—that we believed the promotion of healthful living to be of primary importance. Long ago we passed laws designed to make people more healthful, and started programs in our public schools to achieve this objective. Down through the years an increasingly good job has been done, but not enough. Now we are coming to realize that putting our objectives down on paper, passing laws, and developing school programs do not necessarily result in gaining the objectives which have been set up. We are coming to realize that the only way health standards are raised is through the adoption by millions of people of those habits of living which are known to be necessary for maximum enjoyment and efficiency. We are coming to realize that we have put too great faith in the printed word, the spoken exhortation, the charts and diagrams, the statistics. We are coming to realize that if we want to attain a justifiable standard of national health

*An address before the joint meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, The NEA Convention, Boston, Massachusetts, June 30, 1941.

and physical fitness we must find the way to train the boys and girls and men and women of this country in the actual performance of those acts of living by which they will gain and retain maximum health. The schools share with the home and other agencies the great responsibility for such training.

We know the general health needs of our people fairly well at the present time. Sufficient data have been gathered by various organizations and individuals to show us pretty clearly just where the major problems lie. Our next steps are (1) to improve constantly the present going program in every way possible, and (2) to generate among an ever-increasing number of people the realization of these needs and a positive attitude toward a program designed to meet them. There is no more favorable place than the public schools in which to begin this process of raising the national consciousness and the national level of expectancy with respect to health and physical fitness.

The administering of a worth-while program of health, physical education, and recreation first of all involves the acceptance of the philosophy that, for any particular individual, health is a state of being which is affected by many factors. The aim, therefore, of health, physical education, and recreation is to promote a health status as high as can be maintained through control of environmental conditions and personal habits.

Since each school differs in the health needs of pupils and teachers, no one prescription for a program can be made. My aim will be to discuss general principles illustrated with examples of practice which may be helpful.

ADMINISTERING THE PROGRAM

It would seem that the logical procedure to be followed in organizing and administering a comprehensive program would be (1) to organize the entire school staff in finding out the health status of the pupils and of the teachers, (2) to determine the in-school and out-of-school living and work habits of pupils and teachers, and (3) to outline a systematic program for improvement. The kind of program developed will vary from school to school and only general suggestions can be given.

One of the first problems faced by the staff is to see that each pupil is given as complete an examination as facilities and resources will permit. Adequate expert examining service is not available in most public schools, yet no child should begin his program until his health—physical and psychological—status has been as adequately determined as possible. The time schedule of the school should make allowance for this important step. We cannot justify, I think, our present practice of starting "with a bang" the very first day of school. Such a procedure denies the importance of making a careful inventory of needs, a step which is an essential part of all good teaching, of all good building, of all good medical practice.

Furthermore, the organization and administration of a school program should take the teacher's health status and needs into consideration. Just as the teacher has the responsibility of studying his group of pupils before

beginning the teacher process, so the administrator has the responsibility of studying the needs of his staff before the program gets under way.

In the case of both the pupils and teachers, the process of diagnosis should be a continuous one and should include: (a) A complete physical examination at the beginning of the school year and preferably at the close also, (b) As accurate a measure as instruments permit of social maturity, chiefly in regard to personal habits and social relationships and including both in-school and out-of-school activities, (c) An inventory of both in-school and out-of-school interests and activities. Because such cross-sectional studies are limited in value, cumulative records should be developed in order that a historical record of each pupil and teacher could be obtained.

A second inventory should be made of school and community resources of an institutional and material nature. This should include all aspects of the environmental conditions, bad as well as good. Included would be such items as amount, quality, and location of play space, such recreational facilities as libraries, clubs, swimming facilities, hiking possibilities, camps, movies, the living conditions in the home, and provisions for traffic safety. Within the school the advantages and disadvantages of classroom equipment, ventilation, heat and illumination, gymnasiums and playgrounds, locker and shower-room facilities, and provisions for school lunch should be evaluated.

SOLUTION DERIVED SLOWLY

Once a school has determined by such a thoroughgoing analysis the health, physical education, and recreation needs of its pupils and teachers, the real work can proceed. As has been pointed out by Mort of Teachers College, Columbia University in his studies of adaptability, the innovation of a new practice is a long-drawn-out process dependent for speed mainly on the level of expectancy of the community and of its leaders. We well know that the solution of the problems which we find in our schools is going to be made more slowly than we should like.

Assuming that the diagnosis of needs has shown the importance of an expanded emphasis on health, physical education, and recreation, the administrator will be concerned with such problems as:

What portion of the school day is to be used in such activities?

How can the school best be organized to promote health?

How best achieve co-ordination of teachers' efforts in the interests of better health for pupils and teachers?

What is the responsibility of the school for the out-of-school activities of pupils?

What facilities need to be and can be added and which should be eliminated?

What role is the school to play in the nutrition of pupils?

How shall home and school work together in the interests of child health?

We should anticipate eventually devoting at least one-fourth of the time which the child spends in school to activities for the promotion of better health through better habits of personal and group living. In moving

toward this distribution of time, we shall be concerned with the problem of what to eliminate from the program. Since only about one twelfth of the child's time is now concerned with studies and activities devoted to health, physical education, and recreation, it would seem necessary to eliminate one or more of the conventional studies now pursued by pupils. But this need not necessarily follow since there is no valid reason why each teacher could not spend a considerable portion of time in the use of factual materials which pupils need to learn in their health course. For instance, the English teacher could as well as not teach reading and grammar with the use of health materials. The home-room teacher, often at a loss for worth-while activities, might well spend part of the time in analyzing how well each pupil spends his time, energy, and other resources and in making a systematic effort to help him improve. I recall a significant undertaking of this kind in which the boys and girls with the guidance of their teacher prepared letters to their parents outlining the places where their own programs needed improvement in the light of what they had been studying and asked their parents' help. An enthusiastic response was received from most of the parents and nearly every member of the home-room group improved his sleeping, eating, studying, and leisure-time habits.

Were this or a similar approach followed throughout the school career of each boy and girl we should need to have no qualms as to the value of the time spent in the homeroom. On the contrary the homeroom would come to be regarded as a sort of foster home for pupils from which all his school activities would radiate, and in which a master teacher would help him to achieve those habits and attitudes so essential to his well-being.

Sooner or later, we shall find it desirable so to organize our upper schools that some one person will stand in the same relationship to pupils as does the elementary teacher in undepartmentalized schools. With such a teacher the specialists in crafts, in expression, and in health and physical education activities would work in close relationship in the interests of boys and girls, not primarily in the interest of subject-matter mastery or conformity to an adult-conceived pattern. I decry the bell system of production-line education which chops up the day of both the boys and girls and the teachers into so many segments of time. I think we should so organize our school programs that periods are sufficiently long to permit of unhurried, systematic, completion of learning activities. Part of the time now consumed in passing from room to room could better be spent in quiet or rest periods or in other relaxing activities.

CO-ORDINATING TEACHERS EFFORTS NECESSARY

One of the important administrative problems is that of co-ordinating teachers' efforts in the interests of pupil welfare. In an organization such as that proposed, the home-room teacher would act as the co-ordinator. Her primary function would be that of looking after the welfare and progress of the pupils committed to her care. Her secondary function would be the teaching of subject matter to other home-room groups. Periodic planning

conferences and individual interviews with pupils and specialists would be necessary in order to discharge her co-ordinator responsibilities. The cumulative record of growth mentioned earlier would be at her disposal and she would be responsible for keeping it up to date.

Increasing concern is being manifested for the out-of-school activity of children and youth. In more and more cases, both parents are working, thus leaving unsupervised the leisure-time activity of children. Any analysis of the way our pupils spend the hours out of school and during the summer months would reveal a serious problem. Very significant work has been done in the matter of supervised play activities. In some sections, camping programs have been developed and a few schools have expanded their activities beyond the usual closing time, but by and large our boys and girls do not receive much help from adults in their use of leisure time, much of which is spent in activities neither creative nor recreative.

SCHOOL RESPONSIBLE FOR HELPING ITS PUPILS

The schools have been increasingly aware of the important effect which out-of-school activity has on boys and girls, and concern has been felt for providing that the time be well spent. However, the schools have not yet accepted this responsibility fully—it has been felt to be a problem for the home to solve. A much closer relationship with the home is needed in order that parents, unable or unwilling to give adequate supervision, may work with the school in seeing to it that such supervision is exercised by the school or some other equally responsible agency. No community can afford to have its children spending a substantial portion of their out-of-school time in unsupervised and aimless activity. When and if the time comes that we can free a greater part of such teachers as the home-room teacher mentioned earlier for such work with the home and when we are able to assign specialists to work with children in their out-of-school time—then and only then will we begin to approach the ideal of having the full time of every boy and girl spent under sympathetic supervision.

Until comparatively recent years the school assumed little responsibility for helping boys and girls establish a wholesome relationship with the opposite sex. On the contrary many schools attempted to retard or prevent this most important growth process. Some still operate under such archaic misapprehensions but most schools are realizing that youngsters need help in making happy adjustments. To that end, an increasing number of schools are providing the knowledge and activities which boys and girls need in order to grow up normally. Programs designed to perform this function should be carried on in close relationship with the home, with such activities as dancing, mixed games, and out-of-school recreational pursuits planned for the boys and girls when they have reached the point in their maturation and are ready for them. Under no circumstances however should pressure be placed on either boys or girls to participate. In the later years of school, more and more of such wholesome activities should be developed and should be carried into after-school life.

Many of our people, despite the wealth and productivity of the country, are malnourished. The reasons for this vary in different groups, some being malnourished because of inability to secure food, some because of poor habits of food selection, others because the processing of food has removed certain elements vital to adequate nutrition.

The function of the school in the matter of nutrition is still in doubt. Few public schools have assumed full responsibility for providing an adequate noon meal for all children. All schools give instruction in dietary information and most teachers confer with pupils about their eating habits.

In recent years, lunch projects carried on by the Federal government in collaboration with local public schools have provided well-balanced noon meals for large numbers of children. These projects have served to put a different complexion on the question of providing lunches at public expense. That the children have benefited from them there can be little doubt. However, I am inclined to feel that wherever possible the home should provide for the food which children eat in school and the school in turn should make every effort to provide the children and parents with the information necessary to provide the best meal with the least outlay.

Most schools do a poor job when it comes to developing correct table manners and habits of personal cleanliness in the lunchroom. We constantly exhort the child to follow the accepted rules of etiquette, we stress the importance of neatness and cleanliness at table, yet in few schools are there adequate provision for the practice of these things. We have yet to learn how to make full use of the school cafeteria as a learning situation. Provision in our program for having teachers dine with groups of pupils, presiding as the hostess, would correct this situation.

BUILDING A STRONGER AMERICA

By the pressure of events in other parts of the world and by our concern for the continued happiness and well-being of our country, we are committed to building a stronger America. As we go about building the program for doing this, it is well that we recall the words of Woodrow Wilson: "We shall deal with our economic system as it is and as it may be modified, not as it might be if we had a clean sheet of paper to write upon, and step by step we shall make it what it ought to be." I believe that public-school administrators and teachers, supported loyally by the great mass of parents, will see to it that, step by step, the present going program will be so revised, and thereby the living habits of boys and girls so changed, that a stronger and stronger America will emerge.

The Modern Dance in the Physical Education Program*

RAYMOND A. GREEN

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"I Hear America Singing," "Jazz Fantasia," "The Battle Hymn of the Republic," "Draft Names Drawn," "Jeannie with the Light Brown Hair,"—there are numberless opportunities for the Modern Dance group, the song, and dance, to realize again, and in a thrilling way, the values in our democratic historical development. To tie in Art and Drama multiplies the educational values. Dancing has occupied a prominent place in the Physical Education program at Newton High School. Three years ago Modern Dance was added to the list of activities. The response has proved its value. Approximately fourteen hundred girls have participated during class time. Over one hundred fifty girls have remained after school into the late afternoons in this creative activity. Not only does it develop healthy bodies through graceful exercise, but it gives opportunities to the girl to create her own interpretation of the music or poem or mood. Pupils are first taught the fundamental rhythms and techniques and then are given opportunities to create and compose their own dances.

Public performances of the modern dance integrated with the other departments in the school—Art, Music, Drama, Verse Speaking,—included "An Evening of the Dance" in which Oscar Wilde's *Birthday of the Infanta* was interpreted by the dancers. This afternoon program will consist of two parts: First, a Physical Education demonstration with the dancers assisted by the Boys' Chorus. The second part is a rendition of parts of "I Hear America Singing," an attempt to trace historically in music the development of democracy in America since the signing of the Mayflower Compact. The girls of the Household Arts department designed and made the costumes, the drama workshop and stage crew planned the staging,—in all a thrilling co-operative activity in this day when we cannot emphasize too strongly to our boys and girls the blessings of our American democracy and way of life. Perhaps an expression of one girl who wrote an essay on the modern dance for her English teacher will indicate its appeal to the girls. She wrote: "The happiest time of the week is the period devoted to the dance. We poise and balance and it feels like floating on air."

*The introduction to a Modern Dance Demonstration given before the joint meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the American Association of Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, at the NEA Convention, Boston, Massachusetts, June 30, 1941. The dance was given by students from the modern dance group of the Department of Health and Physical Education under the direction of Miss Jean Aubry assisted by the Verse-Speaking Choir, Miss Helen E. Nute, director, and the Boys' Chorus, J. Collins Lingo, director, all of the Newton High School.

The School Interprets Democracy Through the Social Studies Program*

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It has been reported that a prominent South American recently said that the people of this continent proposed to shoot the next "goodwill delegation" sent to his country. Perhaps we are attempting to love them to death. What they want is concrete acts which carry a ring of sincerity. Likewise, we have heard so much recently about "Education for Democracy," that we become irritated by its mere reiteration. Yet, it must be admitted that much that we have done has been mere lip-service. The challenges hurled today at the very foundations of democracy require that we continue to consider this task seriously and that we undertake definite and concrete steps to assist in the interpretation of democracy for youth today. If thought is a guide to action and if we can suggest some practical procedures our reconsideration of this topic may be justified.

At the outset, I assume that we believe that democracy is one of the greatest of man's inventions; that we are determined to perpetuate it and to improve its operations. Some may contend that democracy is a false creed; that a population which does not understand budgets and deficits cannot be trusted with self-government; that there is no certainty that democracy can function in a highly-industrialized and urbanized society. These statements we deny, and until someone demonstrates that on the whole there is some other means by which men may achieve more of the good things of life, we shall build upon the ideals of democracy, while recognizing that we have not completely attained those ideals.

DEFINING DEMOCRACY

For purposes of this discussion I accept this definition of democracy: Democracy is a way of life and social organization which, above all others, is sensitive to the dignity and worth of the individual human personality, affirming the fundamental moral and political equality of all men and recognizing no barriers of race, religion, or circumstance.¹

It is that way of life attended by representative government, popular ballot, free speech, free press, freedom of conscience and religion, the spirit of free inquiry and scientific research, the right of the majority to conduct and the minority to criticize the government, the privilege of each to develop his capacities to the highest possible degree. I assume also that democracy is probably the most difficult way of life to operate; that it requires a very

*An address delivered before the joint meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and the National Council for the Social Studies, The N.E.A. Convention, Boston, Massachusetts, July 1, 1941.

¹General Report of the Seminar on "What is Democracy?" Congress on Education for Democracy, Columbia University, New York City, August, 1939.

high degree of social, economic and political literacy in the entire populace.

It should also be assumed that the character of an educational program must of necessity be determined by the type of social system which it proposes to assist in perpetuating and building. The communists in Russia discovered that they had to change even some of their mathematics programs, because many of the old problems of profit and loss were considered capitalistic propaganda. To a much greater extent, our social-studies program must be determined by our belief in democratic principles.

Finally, we must assume that, in spite of a job relatively well done in the past, it is incumbent upon us to do much more to interpret democracy to youth, if we are to meet successfully the forces, within and without, which are threatening our way of life today and which will inevitably continue to challenge us in the future. The social studies must shoulder a large share of the school's responsibility in meeting this challenge, but certainly not all of it. Other departments and activities also have their responsibility if a satisfactory job is to be done. At present we are concerned with the task of the social studies. What specifically can and should the social studies be expected to do in this connection?

OBJECTIVES FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

I shall group my suggestions under the four principal social studies objectives in regard to interpreting democracy. These objectives are: first, that pupils develop a thorough understanding of the purposes, ideals, and operation of democracy: second, that pupils build for themselves a fundamental and enduring loyalty to its principles: third, that they gain practice in its procedures: and fourth, that they acquire an abiding desire to assume their responsibilities in the perpetuation and improvement of its operation.

In the past we have too often proceeded upon the principle that pupils might acquire the desired understandings of democracy as *incidental*s to the study of the passage of events or the study of the structure of government. The basic tenets of democracy tended to be lost in the maze of subject matter which, although important and essential to a well-rounded education, obscured for many pupils the real meaning of democracy. On the other hand, teachers of science take a more direct approach when they want pupils to understand certain scientific principles. Subject matter and activities are organized specifically to that end.

In attempting to explain or describe democracy, secondary-school pupils frequently can go no further than to state that "it is government of the people, by the people, and for the people," or "it is a place where you can do as you please." The first statement is a good, partial explanation, but it is only partial; the second is definitely misleading. In the social studies today there is an increasing acceptance of a statement made recently by the Educational Policies Commission in its report, *Learning the Ways of Democracy*. "The clarification with students of their ideas about democracy may be carried on in many phases of school work. . . .

But incidental instruction is not enough. The problem should be met squarely through the planned program of the course of study."²

Subject matter and activities should be selected to this end and focused directly upon the desired understandings and concepts. Courses in history, civics, and other social studies should have specific units on such topics as "The American Faith," "The Civil Liberties We Enjoy," "Responsibilities in a Democracy," "The Struggle for Personal and Political Liberty," "The Achievement of Democracy," "Making Democracy Work," "The Defense of Democracy," and "Democracy and Its Competitors." From the stream of history and from the contemporary social, political, and economic scene there should be selected those incidents and lives of persons which will illustrate the principles and ideals which we are attempting to clarify.

This proposal does not imply that other topics such as the "Industrial Revolution," "Westward Expansion," "The Rise of Labor and Industry," "Imperial Rivalry," "The Functions of Local Government," "Housing and Civic Beautification" should be eliminated from the curriculum. Nor does it imply that courses in history, civics, economics, sociology, or modern problems be discontinued. In fact, these must be retained if we are to achieve all our objectives in the social studies. All that is proposed is that there be a new emphasis, secured by the revision of certain present courses or units, or by the introduction of certain new units. The point is that certain materials be focused directly upon the interpretation of the meaning of democracy. Within these units pupils should examine their own activities, curriculum and extra-curriculum, in order that pupils may really appreciate the significance of the activities which are provided to give practice in democratic procedures. This may properly include an evaluation of the life of the school, so that its democratic practices may be realized and understood.

To facilitate clarification for pupils, certain of these units on democracy should resolve the term "democracy" into its component elements or principal characteristics, e.g., respect for individual human personality, freedom of expression, rule by the majority, settlement of differences by co-operative means. Some of these units should also make extensive use of comparison and contrast of democracy with other forms of social organization—communism, fascism, nazism. As indicated above, they should utilize historic development, incident, and personalities.

STUDY MUST BE REALISTIC

This study of the meaning of democracy must be realistic. That is, it must include the examination of the achievements and strengths of democracy on one hand and its failures and weaknesses in operation on the other. The achievements of democracy are very substantial in all realms—the material, the social, and the cultural. Among the greatest inventions

²*Learning the Ways of Democracy*, Washington, D.C., The Educational Policies Commission of the N.E.A., 1201 16th Street N. W., 1940, page 50.

of mankind must be included trial by jury, parliamentary procedure, and the popular ballot. It is probable that we have not given the accomplishments of democracy their proper emphasis in recent decades. There may be some basis for the statements frequently made by some critics of the schools that before schools expose pupils to the study of the criticisms and defects of democracy, pupils should understand its meaning and appreciate its achievements. I am convinced, however, that this condemnation has been grossly exaggerated. A realistic study requires that the achievements be included in our units on democracy; we can ill-afford to treat the greatness of our heritage with indifference.

We will fail in our purpose if we ignore the shortcomings of the current practice of democracy. We cannot fool secondary-school pupils today even if we wanted to do so, moreover, a democracy thrives upon criticism. Democracy is based on the principle that improvement is possible only when people recognize the need for improvement and when they are free to examine and discuss freely the points at which improvement seems to be needed and free to devise ways and means for bringing about needed changes. Our confidence is such that, if we balance criticisms with achievements, we need have no fears for democracy. In that line lies our greatest hope. Only in this way can we be truly realistic.

We cannot discharge our responsibility in the secondary school if we are deterred by current attacks upon this procedure. Yet we may expect that if ninety-eight per cent of a book dealt with achievements and only two per cent with weaknesses, someone in each community is likely to attack us for that two per cent. We have a responsibility to reveal, to the sane people who really believe in democracy, the validity and necessity for our balanced consideration of these issues.

A BALANCED DEVOTION TO DEMOCRACY

Our second objective is that pupils build for themselves a balanced devotion to the principles of democracy. The present emergency, with its challenge from abroad, may not seriously endanger the present loyalties of many of our school pupils. In fact, our major problem now may be to avoid hysteria and other excesses which sometimes masquerade as patriotism in times of crisis. We must, however, face the possibility that more critical times may be ahead when the expansion of the defense effort decreases; when, as we hope, the men in the military establishments are returned to civilian life; when we may again be faced with unemployment and a staggering load of debt; when readjustments will be required to correct the dislocations in our economic and social life occasioned by our present expansion of new defense industries. That period when our present pupils will be reaching, or will have reached, maturity will provide new tests of loyalty to democratic processes. These tests may be more severe than those of the present. If, after the present emergency has passed, we then should forsake the principles which we are now striving to defend, the present effort will have been in vain. The military effort can be acclaimed as really successful only if the moral defense continues to be successful. In the

words of the Educational Policies Commission, "Whatever lies ahead for America, whether it be in times of ease or difficulty, of peace or war, our country will always need citizens who understand the ethical ideals of democracy, who are skillful in the application of these ideals, and who are intelligently loyal to them."²

To develop understanding our appeal is largely intellectual; to build loyalties our appeal will be both intellectual and emotional. The plans outlined earlier should serve also to create in youth that basic and enduring devotion which our continued existence as a free people demands. In this matter of loyalties we may take a lesson from the dictators, although we shall certainly wish to avoid the blind type of devotion which they have engendered in their youth.

Two suggestions may be proposed for the social studies. First, the dictators have made their youth feel that they are part of a great movement. Their young people have a feeling that they belong to the group; they are participating members in its institutions. We should explore the possibilities in our communities for tasks which young people can perform in community betterment. These projects may be in the form of surveys, work with officials for community beautification, service in social agencies, co-operation with the forces of law and order, and the devising of programs for the building of public morale. I have been challenged and a bit chagrined by the action of one of my former pupils. She was born in Russia, and brought by her parents to this country when she was nine or ten years old. When she was graduated from high school she had several scholarships offered her to excellent American colleges. Instead of accepting them, she left her family and friends here to return to Russia with the explanation that there was a great cause in which she might give herself in unselfish service. This may be an isolated example, but shouldn't we aspire at least to some of that enthusiasm for the task of building a better democracy?

The second suggestion which we may gain from the dictators is that we utilize a greater amount of dramatization and pageantry in our study of democracy. Everyone is impelled to a greater or lesser degree by emotion. If the schools do not provide this in balanced rations a vacuum will result which will be filled by some other force, perhaps in excess amounts, for nature seems to abhor a vacuum here as elsewhere. A large proportion of these dramatizations, pageants, radio and assembly programs should be planned by pupils themselves and may properly be the natural outgrowth of the units on democracy. This is a worthy form of pupil participation. Assembly sings may contribute much by way of inspiration; it is an important method for building unity. In these sings the social-studies department may co-operate with the music department. Recordings of great radio programs or films on patriotic themes may be used extensively in the study of the proposed units of work.

²Foreword to the pamphlets on *Teaching Materials on Defence of Democracy*, Washington, D.C., Educational Policies Commission of the N.E.A. 1941.

EXPERIENCE IN DEMOCRATIC PROCEDURE NECESSARY

Our third objective is that pupils gain experience in democratic procedure. Such practice in schools is essential if pupils are to be effective citizens of a democracy. We cannot deny them this opportunity in school and expect them to acquire the necessary skills suddenly upon being graduated or when they reach voting age. The next speaker will likely have much to say on this point in discussing the school's activities. The social studies too can and should provide much opportunity for such experience.

Discussion is one of the fundamental techniques of democratic procedure. Social studies teachers should encourage such discussion upon the vital issues considered throughout the social-studies program. Pupils may learn how to conduct calm, yet sincere and intelligent discussion in the relatively unbiased atmosphere of the classroom. With proper encouragement and example by the social-studies teachers they may learn that this is the most satisfying type of discussion; that facts are essential to sound opinions; that hasty conclusions are dangerous; that judgment needs to be suspended but not indefinitely. Such discussions cannot be condemned as forensic displays of ignorant opinion. Pupils should receive practice in parliamentary procedure in the social-studies classroom. Someone has said that "parliamentary procedure is as essential to democracy as the twelve tables are to arithmetic." The organized class can provide such practice while giving pupils opportunity to assume responsibilities.

Much of the work of democracies is done by committees. Classroom projects involving committee work give practice in truly co-operative undertakings while developing skills which are needed if committees are to perform efficiently. The units on democracy as they are developed should suggest many such projects. Discussion, parliamentary procedure and committee work are but three of the techniques democracy uses to solve its problems. The builders of the social-studies curriculum should analyze the methods used by democracy to discover still other techniques. These, too, should be suggested in the units.

The fourth objective for the social studies in regard to democracy is that pupils acquire an impelling desire to assume their responsibilities in the perpetuation and improvement of its operation. If the other three objectives are achieved this one may follow. A true understanding of democracy and a devotion to its ideals should do much to inspire a willingness to share in the assumption of duties. We should hope that the practice of democratic living may result in establishment of habits of participation. But it seems very necessary that we give special emphasis to the objectives of democracy if we are to enjoy any degree of certainty that this result may be achieved.

PUPILS MUST LEARN TO ASSUME RESPONSIBILITIES

The Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association in its survey reported in *Learning the Ways of Democracy*, found that "of the ninety per cent who gave intelligible definitions, over

two-thirds defined democracy solely in terms of rights and liberties without reference to the responsibilities entailed. Fewer than one-third gave evidence of awareness that in a democracy citizens have obligations as well as privileges. This condition calls for prompt attention, for personal liberties will not long endure without widespread assumption of civic responsibility."⁴

Perhaps this result occurred because, even in the ninety carefully selected schools, too little attention was given to units on democracy. In any case it appears obvious that we must emphasize that in the words of Archibald MacLeish, "Democracy is never a thing done. Democracy is always something that a nation must be doing. The quarter sections which were freedom a hundred years ago are now not freedom. Freedom will be somewhere else. But the labor of creating freedom is the same. . . . Democracy in action is a cause for which the stones themselves will fight."⁵ Liberty is more than a heritage; it must be won anew by each generation.

Our units on democracy should be organized to stress that democracy has been won only through struggle and sacrifice. An abundance of evidence may be assembled to demonstrate that this has been a continuous struggle; that where there was neglect, losses resulted. We may draw examples from those cases in the past, especially the very recent past, where peoples have lost their hard-earned liberties. Pupils are challenged to assume their responsibilities when they discover that there is still much to be done to make democracy function more effectively. It is not sufficient that pupils get practice in democratic procedure in their school life. Excellent as this is, it may be mere thoughtless "participation" without actual understanding of its implications. Only by rational analysis of the results of this activity may pupils really discover that maximum success from democratic procedures is secured only when everyone assumes his fair share of responsibilities.

In the consideration of the obligations in a democracy, it seems that we have neglected to emphasize the function of the expert, the authority. In our emphasis upon the idea of equality we may have obscured the fact that democracy too requires and may have good leadership. We may expect to get this leadership if the people will recognize the need for it, the possibility of obtaining it, and their responsibility in securing it. This involves respect for the expert and for authority,—a factor which our people have seemed to disparage. Regard for leadership implies the responsibilities of followership. These considerations should receive proper emphasis in our units on democracy.

⁴*Learning the Ways of Democracy*, op. cit. p. 47.

⁵MacLeish, Archibald, *The American Cause*, New York: Duell, Sloan and Pearce, 1941, p. 28.

The School Interprets Democracy Through the School's Program: Administration and Activities*

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"We the people," the first three words of the preamble to the constitution of the United States, gives the essence of the primary purpose of a democracy. Our American democracy was established in order that people might be provided with better ways for living, and that they might enjoy the benefits and privileges which are attendant to increased freedom, justice, and equality. The people established public education of, by and for the perpetuation of the American way of life.

The people, having secured a democratic form of government, founded the American public school system in order that this new democratic form of government might be preserved. They realized that this new form of political administration could not be preserved unless the people were to become familiar with the fundamental principles underlying and making up this new philosophical experiment. They expected the public school to turn out intelligent, unselfish individuals who would assume a responsibility for passing on to new generations these new opportunities and privileges. The school, in a constantly changing world, was expected to develop character in individuals and to train for intelligent, dynamic citizenship.

THREATS TO DEMOCRACY

In these days of conflict in so many parts of the world, the democratic form of government seems to be endangered by the many powerful forces which are constantly being exerted upon it. The physical dangers of a world at war are a serious peril, but the insidious attack on the morale of the American people is a still more dangerous problem. There is some evidence that unfriendly powers have attempted to sabotage the American way of life by instilling into receptive minds the thought that the democratic way is inefficient. Propaganda has been spread to the effect that the democratic institutions are weak and soft and ineffective, and that those who serve democracy are selfish and just "blunder through." The constant barrage of propaganda, which is being poured out, has caused the American people to be worried and bewildered. Their way of life, which has seemed so satisfactory and secure in the past has changed to one of projected shadows creeping over the land.

In such a critical situation, the two I's, ignorance and indifference, are the greatest threats to the continuation of the liberty and freedom of

*An address delivered before the joint meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies, The N.E.A. convention, Boston, Massachusetts, July 1, 1941.

choice which have been enjoyed in the American way of life. It seems to be a characteristic of humans that, in general, people oppose the things which they know very little about. Emphatically, it may be said that people are inclined to oppose those things about which they do not possess sufficient knowledge. In such circumstances, all public institutions, including the public schools, are subject to attack.

In such a condition of affairs, it must be realized that there can be no democracy without universal education, either in conflict or in peace. At such times, when sly propaganda is the order of the day, America must mobilize not only its man power and machines of warfare, but, at the same time, it must mobilize its intellectual, moral, and spiritual resources. The dictator nations did not sacrifice their educational programs to build armaments. They built upon totalitarian education which was designed to produce intelligence on technical problems and an emotional buildup regarding social and economic problems. Democracy in this crisis must rely upon education to develop citizens capable of making the way of life effective and powerful. American citizens must be taught how to seek, recognize, and disseminate true information concerning their form of government.

The school is attempting to interpret and better serve democracy today by performing its task with greater clarity of purpose and effectiveness of method. The present national crisis has served as an impetus to re-evaluate the educational program in more realistic terms. This does not mean that a defensive attitude shall be assumed toward present school programs nor that hasty or ill-advised changes shall be made. It does call for alert and intelligent adjustment to the everyday needs of democracy. The schools can no longer justify school costs on an expanding population basis—they must justify school costs in terms of service. They must promote a clearer understanding of, and a deeper appreciation for, the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship in a land of the free.

RESPECT THE PERSONALITY OF THE INDIVIDUAL

If the school is to interpret democracy through its program of administration, it must, first of all, respect the personality of the individual. For democratic administration, this means that teacher or pupil may make constructive suggestions and have their suggestions considered on their merits. Such a program involves shared interests, shared aims, and shared responsibilities. It means that each person may share in what affects him and that such sharing must be on the basis of ability and the willingness to accept responsibility for the results. The multitude of little decisions and suggestions made daily by teachers and students alike, and the sharing of responsibilities, offer an opportunity for maximal growth and optimal adjustment in good citizenship. The school administration, in addition to teaching and preaching, needs to exemplify democracy and allow it to be lived in the school community.

In the second place, the program of administration must be a two-way program of mutual effort and understanding between the schools and

the public. No school administrator should superimpose his own philosophy of life upon the life of the school and community, especially when it is opposed by the faculty and student body and established customs and traditions in the community. Rather, he should attempt to find the pulse of his people on debatable school problems and govern himself accordingly. Such a procedure does not mean that the administrator should not attempt to lead and to make needed improvements, but it does mean that he should have an honesty of purpose which shall guide him in leading the people rather than in forcing them to accept things which they do not want. If the school is to interpret democracy through its administration, the administrator and administration must be constantly on the alert to sense the needs of the public and then co-operate in working out a program to meet these needs.

In the third place, if the school is to interpret democracy through a good program of administration, there should be a rigid self-analysis by the school and a basic adjustment and modification of present procedures and viewpoints if, and when, such modifications are necessary. In the final analysis, the school is judged by the work which is done in the classroom of each and every teacher. If this work is to be satisfactory and to assist democracy, it must be kept up-to-date and be changed to meet the needs of a constantly changing world. There is no place for the teacher who is satisfied to get in a rut and progressively travel backward. In the long stretch, it is the work and effort and attitude of the classroom teacher by which the worth of the school should be, and is, judged. Within the past year, the schools have answered the call of the national defense program and have given challenging evidence of their ability to make that defense program a living thing. They have demonstrated the fact that teachers and the administration are able to re-evaluate and readjust in a relatively short space of time.

PROMOTE A GOOD PROGRAM OF PUBLIC RELATIONS

In the next place, a good program of school administration for American democracy calls for a good program of public school relations. Such a plan involves the establishment between the school and the public of a full and honest understanding of the facts which brought the public school into being and which has made it the agent of democracy. The complete social significance of these facts must be made public. It is important that the public understand the philosophy that has founded, guided, and preserved the American public school since the days of Horace Mann. The public must be shown that the schools are facing new and stupendous tasks; that they have been forced to take over more and more of what was formerly the prerogative of the home and of other social agencies. The public relations program should be a continuous process of facilitating widespread public participation in the developing educational program. It should not be a kind of glorified sales department which attempts to promote and foster, by means of high pressure salesmanship, something which

the public does not want, but rather, it should be an integral part of the entire educational process; it should present a clear, dramatic, fair cross-section of what the pupils and teachers and the school are actually doing. The accomplishments of the schools must be presented to the public in a fair and unbiased manner. By this means, an intelligent community support for education will be created and democracy will thereby be strengthened.

Finally, the administration, in attempting to interpret democracy through the school's program, should assume the responsibility for cultivating a spirit of patriotism among the pupils. One of the greatest dangers today lies in taking the democratic form of government too complacently and in being blind to the evils lurking within the fold. The good school will make an honest effort to teach the worth of democracy and will attempt to instill respect and love for it. The advantages of democracy and the possibilities of its further development will be made so clear that students will be inspired to give their best to the country. The young people will be prepared to meet with courage and intelligence the problems of a war age and those which will come with peace and reconstruction. Loyalty to the country and devotion to the ways of democracy will be built into the lives of the young people who are entrusted to the care of the school. If the school is to be the first line of defense for democracy, it must be a large factor in teaching pupils how to recognize propaganda and how to seek out the truth. In teaching them how to find the truth and how to be loyal to democratic ideals, the school will prove its worth and ably assist in interpreting true democracy. If, and when, the citizens of this nation have no ideals for which they would die in order to preserve, then surely despotism and darkness will overcome this western hemisphere in the same manner as they threaten Europe today.

How can the school interpret democracy through the school's program of activities? A modern school is interested in training in the qualities which go to make up good citizenship. Since "to know" does not always mean "to do," the problem facing the school far outreaches that of imparting facts. More and more it must be concerned with what the individual does as well as with what he knows. If the child is to live in a democracy, he must be taught not only something about that democracy but also how to participate successfully in it.

PROVIDE REALISTIC TRAINING

The question which each democracy must face is how to produce the good citizen. The good citizen must have an opportunity to learn "how to do" instead of being told "what to do." The four catchwords of totalitarian dictators are: "Believe! Obey! Sacrifice! Die!" The four catchwords of democracy are: "Learn! Choose! Serve! Live!" The activities program of the school presents an opportunity for pupils to carry out the four catchwords of democracy. Pupil participation presents an opportunity for training in democratic thinking, feeling, and acting.

In the school's program of activities, the student council offers a splendid opportunity for the school to interpret democracy and to put many of its principles into action. The council is similar to democracy in that the pupils choose representatives who are to work together under the supervision of the faculty sponsors and who are to act for the student body. In working together, the pupils are stimulated to develop good social and moral habits, sincerity instead of pretense, sympathy instead of hate, and tolerance instead of bigotry. Such concurrent effort tends to encourage co-operation among the pupils, the council, and the faculty. Through such a co-operative spirit, there is developed a tendency to eliminate selfishness and to practice the democratic principles. In learning to accept the will of the majority, it would appear that the pupils are acquiring the habit of living together with their mates in a manner which is characteristic of good citizenship.

Since citizenship may be thought of as an art of living, it is important to society that its future citizens learn to live together in true democratic fashion. The state invests considerable money and effort in free public education in order that the public school may turn out individuals who will be co-operative and who will be intelligent, worth-while citizens. The student council, in its many activities, offers a channel for training in this phase of living. In carrying on the activities in the everyday process of their school life, pupils acquire democratic habits of living. They learn to co-operate and to have a spirit of service for the common good.

"Service above self" is the motto of many organizations in our American democracy. Service is one of the fundamental principles of life which is just as good in one generation as in another. The average student council considers service so essential that it has a special service committee. In teaching pupils how to serve, the council is providing the right kind of training for citizenship because it provides the channel whereby pupils can do intelligent thinking and learn to do by doing. If this training does no more than to make the pupil aware of, and alert as to the possibilities of service to others, it will have proved itself to be worth while. By placing emphasis on service to others, the council is adopting a positive approach to the problems of the school and to the problems which must be met in society.

MAKE THE SCHOOL THE CENTER FOR DEMOCRATIC LIVING

If democracy is to persist, it will be because people have learned how to live it in the everyday process of life, whether that be in the school, in the realm of business, or in the home. Schools with councils are centers of democratic living because the student council, through its organized activity program, furnishes a form of student organization, whereby pupils are afforded an additional opportunity for continuous reconstruction of experience. Through its various committees, the council carries on many activities which enable many pupils to have the opportunity for additional and more varied experiences. Such training is of great value in helping these future citizens acquire the art of democratic living. They learn to balance the privileges of citizenship with the responsibilities of the same. As they

mature and develop, they become living examples and interpreters of the school's program of activities for democratic living.

Another activity which can be used successfully by the school in interpreting democracy is the school publications. The school magazine or paper, the school annual, and the handbook which is published by many schools, are valuable mediums for showing by illustrative representation the complete picture of the school. These activities provide a field for co-operative endeavor and for service to others. They present opportunities in leadership which may be grasped by those who possess the ability and desire to prove their worth. They also offer an opportunity to present true information concerning democracy.

The school has an opportunity to interpret democracy through many other activities. A number of schools are now using the radio for weekly broadcasts. While this method of contact is rather new it is a very valuable instrument in any planned public relations program and in the training which the students receive. A better appreciation of the finer things of life is being developed by this means. Pupils are taught to tolerate the inferior and to select the superior, hence, a constructive, critical attitude is developed. By means of the broadcasts, the community is drawn closer to the school and its work. No finer opportunity can be presented to the school in its effort to interpret democracy to the public.

Other activities sponsored by the school which have some training value for democracy and in interpreting the same include the following: physical education and health work, training in history and government, gymnasium demonstrations, musical demonstrations, printed and illustrated reports, demonstrations before service clubs, forums, clubs, conferences and discussion groups, class plays, movies, student journalistic material for the newspapers, and active parent-teacher associations.

The preservation of democracy depends upon the school's ability to find avenues by which pupils may be trained to think through and act independently. Totalitarian states may drill their young, and mature people, too, in a blind faith in a system, but the whole meaning of democracy is faith in the free mind. Hence, Americans must be trained to think through and act independently, if they are to be expected, as citizens, to be able to resist the enormous amount of propaganda which is being poured upon them. Our forefathers placed their trust in the public schools as the preservers of democracy. We must rise to the challenge and be true to that trust.

Resource Units for Social Studies Teachers

PAUL B. JACOBSON

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The National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the National Council for the Social Studies have secured a subvention from the *General Education Board* to make available resource units for teachers on vital contemporary social problems. The purpose is to make materials available to teachers more quickly than research findings are ordinarily made available to them through textbooks, for it is recognized that textbooks often lag twenty years behind research findings. Teachers cannot themselves dig out the materials which are available in research centers. Many of them do not have access to the materials and research findings which are necessary; all of them are so busy in teaching five or six classes that they would not have the energy to prepare such materials after a full day of teaching. It is desirable, too, that an analysis of research material be presented by recognized authorities in the field of social science and have the approval of national organizations such as the N.A.S.S.P. and the N.C.S.S. so that a teacher may refer to the authoritative source in case the material is questioned by a pressure group in the community. It seems desirable, therefore, that such national organizations as these should secure outstanding social scientists to prepare analyses for teachers to use in their teaching.

Perhaps it is unnecessary to mention why vital materials on social problems are needed. For those who wish information the findings of the *Regents' Inquiry in the Character and Cost of Public Education in the State of New York* indicate clearly that young people know the headline news and historical fact but that they are uninformed about the vital social, economic and governmental problems which perplex us. They are, for example, able to describe the Ordinance of 1787 but they are not informed about the work of the National Resources Planning Board or the perplexing problems of unemployment.

Citizens are in favor of youth discussing these vital problems and two thirds of them think that the teacher should lead the discussions; but a somewhat smaller percentage feel that the teachers are not fair in the discussions of vital topics.¹ These resource units then furnish one way for a teacher to become informed and more competent to lead the discussions which it is imperative to hold in secondary-school classes.

WHAT IS A RESOURCE UNIT?

On the basis of careful study carried out under its direction, the *Committee for Democratic Citizenship* has defined a resource unit as including the following:

¹See *What People Think About Youth and Education*, National Education Association Research Bulletin XVIII, No. 5 (November 1940) pp. 196-198.

1. An analysis of the problem.
2. Suggestions for additional reading.
3. Teaching aims in terms of behavior.
4. Pupil activities and teaching procedures.
5. A guide to evaluation.

The analysis which will consist of from ten to fifteen thousand words is to be written by an eminent social scientist. The list of topics and the analysis which follow indicate the character of the men who are co-operating in this venture. In the opinion of the Committee, the analysis is the heart of a research unit, and will be described somewhat more fully later. When the analysis has been prepared by the social scientist, there is included a brief bibliography from which additional information can be secured. This bibliography will be selective and inexpensive insofar as that is possible. The analysis is then sent to a master teacher who prepares teaching aims in terms of behavior. For example, in dealing with migrant labor the teacher may have as an objective that pupils shall be sympathetic to and understand the problem of the migrant. Understandings and appreciations are much more important than factual knowledge, but it is not possible to be understanding or sympathetic unless one has some factual material. Evaluation then is to be carried out in terms of the teaching aims. For instance if a teacher's objective is to create understanding and sympathy for the migrant she will evaluate instruction in those terms. If after studying the problem of the migrant laborer, the pupil speaks of an "Okie" as a "dirty bum," the teacher will recognize that she has not reached the object: understanding and sympathy of the problem of the migrant. It is quite possible, of course, that one of the objectives of teaching may be information about the problem of the migrant which would be measured in a somewhat different way from appreciations, attitudes, and understandings.

The master teacher is also to prepare pupil activities and teaching procedures. In general it is felt that there should be pupil-teacher planning of the activities and that as much use shall be made of the community as possible. Besides reading, materials are to be used such as visual aids, moving pictures, and field trips, or excursions. It is thought by the Committee that pupil activities might be divided into

- (a) Initiatory
- (b) Developmental
- (c) Culminative

In the problem of migrant labor, the initiatory activity might be observing a film such as *The Grapes of Wrath*. It might be that some other means such as skillful questioning or drawing on the informational background of pupils may arouse their interests so that they would attack such a problem with enthusiasm. The developmental period requires most of the time in the teaching of the unit. During this period pupils would do elementary research in books and magazines, collect information from many sources, take field trips to the community and collect whatever information is necessary. During the study of the problem of migrant labor, wide read-

ing of many materials, for example the reading of novels or government reports such as the Toland Committee Report of the U. S. Congress on *Migratory Labor*, which deal with migrant labor, form an important part of the instructional procedure.

In the culminative period the class may have floor talks, panel discussions, or written papers which synthesize the information which the pupils have gained. It is to be expected that these activities will vary from class to class and from teacher to teacher. In fact it is quite probable that two teachers in the same school would not employ the same activities and it is very possible that one teacher would use two different methods with two or more classes. The suggestions for teaching procedures are not intended to be a pattern for teachers to follow, but rather a source from which teachers may secure suggestions which may be adapted to use in individual classrooms.

EARLIER SOURCE UNITS AND HANDBOOKS

There have been a number of source units prepared by teachers in summer workshops and handbooks issued by organizations. By and large, the handbooks have furnished an analysis of the problem from a biased point of view. The source units have excellent teaching suggestions but have been short on analyses. For instance, a recent source unit has: analysis, two pages; bibliography, four pages; aims, one page; procedures, six pages; and tests, twelve pages. This certainly does not furnish a very large amount of technical information for the teacher. The difference between a source unit and a resource unit lies principally in the analysis. For example, the *Committee on Democratic Citizenship* intends to furnish ten to fifteen thousand words of analysis by an outstanding authority in addition to the teaching aids. The source units provide only teaching aids.

It should be emphasized that a resource unit and a teaching unit are something different. A resource unit is a storehouse from which a teacher may draw, but no teacher would plan to use all of the materials available in a resource unit. He would build teaching units which emphasize selections from the analysis and which use certain pupil activities and teaching procedures, but in no sense would he use them all. He would use those which seem most pertinent to him, relevant to his particular community or social situation. It must also be emphasized that the resource unit is not material to be placed in the hands of pupils; the material is intended for teachers and is not intended for pupil use. It is quite possible that it may be necessary for the Committee to address itself to the problem of preparing material to be used by pupils to parallel teacher material, but the task at hand is first of all to procure teaching material.

THE ANALYSIS OF THE PROBLEM

Because the analysis of the problem is the heart of the resource unit, it will be explained at some length using an illustration from the field of housing. First of all the nature of the problem is explained as a layman sees.

it, as a child may see it; (for instance, why can't we have a satisfactory house;) as a social scientist sees it, as the expert in housing sees the nature of the problem.

One of the essential features in the analysis of the problem—generally neglected in textbooks or in the existing teaching units—is the effort to make explicit the different sets of assumptions and values which underlie the problems. Our resource unit attempts to bring these hidden assumptions and values into the open and thus to clarify the issue. For example, the property owner may feel that housing should bring a return on the investment whereas the person who believes in government housing may feel that housing is so desirable and necessary that it should be furnished irrespective of income on capital investment.

Another neglected aspect of the conventional social science teaching materials is the effort to point out the inter-connectedness of all of our social problems. Thus the housing problem is casually connected with delinquency and disease and is in turn in part caused by low incomes and inadequate public control over land ownership. The attempt to solve a problem may cause new problems to come into being. Consequently in our resource unit a special effort is made to consider problems in their complex ramification of actual social life.

This is followed by an analysis of the problem. Why is housing a social problem when we have resources such as wood and brick and trained men who are unemployed? Why is it a problem today when it was not a serious problem as long as America was predominantly rural? This would be followed with an explanation of how the problem varies from rural to urban areas and within urban areas, the complexity of the problem of housing, such as the cost of rental, the importance and difficulty of providing privacy, the influence of transportation and the importance of heating, ventilation, and sanitation; the extent and significance of the problem, such as the extent of poor housing in urban and rural communities, the prevalence of urban and rural slums, the number of new homes needed, the effects of poor housing such as illness, depression of property values, delinquency, family disorganization, and the high cost of government.

The third section of the analysis deals with the causes of the problem. Among these are the rapid urbanization of the nation, speculation by people interested in building and real estate, the lack of adequate social legislation, and the industrialization of the United States. The high price of land and the lack of purchasing power on the part of a large portion of our population would also be treated.

The fourth section on housing deals with the goals to be sought. Among these are housing standards such as those relating to safety, health, proper heating, fresh air, ventilation and sunlight, transportation, recreational, and other community services. Such problems as the percentage of land to be covered by the house would be dealt with and a comparison of land coverage with the suggested standard—two-thirds free space for lawns.

gardens, and play space for children. The number of persons per room according to the housing standards, house furnishings, and household equipment and the labor saving devices which are considered pertinent will be described. Other goals to be sought in housing are the social gains which result from removal of delinquency areas, the improvement of public health, community solidarity and stability, reduction in the cost of government, etc.

The fifth problem in housing would be ways in which the problem may be attacked. For example, housing is principally a need of low income groups. So long as many annual incomes are below \$750 and housing authorities agree that not more than twice the annual income may be spent for housing, it is clearly seen that adequate housing owned by the person who lives in the house is impossible. Another problem to be considered is whether private industry can solve the housing problem or must the government step into housing as has often been done in Europe. Can the public income be increased so that individuals can afford housing? Another problem which must be considered is the possibility of modernizing the building industry. At present housing enterprises are individualistic and are carried out in uneconomical methods of construction. In order to change the problem of housing one must also consider the problem of civic planning and zoning so that housing will not deteriorate because of the influx of industry or business or through the influx of segments of the population which depress property values. Finally one must consider the revision of the tax structure. The fact that real estate bears a disproportionate share of the tax has a deterrent effect on the development of housing.

It is planned that the resource units shall be tried out by a number of teachers during the second semester of 1941-42 and that the material will then be published and made available to all teachers who may wish to use it. It is planned that the materials shall be published very inexpensively so that they may be generally available to any or all teachers.

In the opinion of many people the most pressing problem which faces the teachers of social studies is to teach the crucial issues and the pressing problems which face this country. Admittedly, not all the answers are in on many social problems, but there are enough answers so that adequate teaching may be done. At any rate the answers of the social scientists and experts who have given years of serious study to these problems should be better than the layman's common sense impressions. The resource units do not try to give the proper answer to any problem; they do not "preach," they present the issues on both or on as many sides as there are and let the teachers and the pupils who work with these teachers draw their own conclusions, in the light of the premises which have been explicitly stated. The materials are not textbooks but resources from which the teacher may draw such material as he wishes to use. The Committee feels that it is a new venture in the preparation of social science material and it feels that this is a significant attempt to furnish to young people honest, effective material on controversial issues.

The topics on which analyses are being prepared are listed below together with the analysts who are preparing the analyses and the master teachers who will prepare the pupil activities and teaching procedures. It is most heartening to know the interest of outstanding social scientists in preparing this type of material. The Committee has had very few refusals to participate and those refusals were always coupled with sincere regrets such as full time commitment to the defense commission, or being out of residence at a university, or travelling so extensively that it was impossible to write. Members of the *Committee on Democratic Citizenship* who are responsible for directing the project are: I. James Quillen, Stanford University; Erling Hunt, Teachers College, Columbia University; James Michener, Colorado State College of Education; Gordon Mackenzie, University of Wisconsin; E. C. Cline, Principal, Morton High School, Richmond, Indiana; J. Dan Hull, Principal, Shortridge High School, Indianapolis, Indiana (Principal, Senior High School, Springfield, Missouri, until July 1, 1941); Will French, Teachers College, Columbia University; and P. B. Jacobson, Principal University High School, University of Chicago.

In addition, a volunteer committee of social scientists at the University of Chicago have co-operated at every stage in the development. These men are: Louis Wirth, Associate Dean, Division of Social Science; Walter Laves, Chairman, Social Science General Course in the College; Albert Lepawsky, Lecturer in Political Science; and Cyril O. Houle, Department of Education.

In order to centralize much of the work in one place, Dean Wirth and Principal Jacobson are serving as co-ordinators for the Committee.

**A LIST OF RESOURCE UNITS IN SOCIAL PROBLEMS BEING
PLANNED TOGETHER WITH THE ANALYSTS AND THE
MASTER TEACHER FOR EACH**

TOPICS	ANALYSTS	MASTER TEACHERS
1. Democracy and Dictatorship	T. V. Smith (Chicago) Glenn R. Negley (Illinois)	Robert Bush, School of Education, Stanford University
2. Free Enterprise and Collectivism	Harry Gidenose (Brooklyn)	A. W. Troelstrup, New Trier High School, Winnetka, Illinois
3. War	(to be secured)	Charles Merrifield, Stanford Univ.
4. American Defense	Harold J. Tobin (Dartmouth)	E. S. Kalp, Theodore Roosevelt High School, Des Moines, Ia.
5. Personal Security and Self-Development	Caroline Zachary (N.Y.) Edward Shills (Chicago)	Virginia Block, Seattle Public Schools
6. Unemployment	Paul Douglas (Chicago)	L. E. Leamer, Four-Year College, Chicago
7. Population	Frederick Osborn (N.Y.) Frank Lorimer (Washington)	K. L. Rehage, University High School, Chicago

<i>TOPICS</i>	<i>ANALYSTS</i>	<i>MASTER TEACHERS</i>
8. Machines and Technology	William Ogburn (Chicago)	Robert Weaver, University H. S., Chicago
9. Public Opinion	Harold Lasswell (Washington)	Howard Cummings, Town School District of Clayton, Missouri
10. Capital and Labor	Roy Lee Montgomery (Cornell)	Samuel Steinberg, Samuel J. Tilden High School, Brooklyn, N. Y.
11. Planning and Natural Resources	C. E. Merriam (Chicago)	Ellis F. Hartford, Tenn. Valley Authority, Knoxville, Tenn.
12. Public Finance	Mabel Newcomer (Vassar)	E. A. Krug, School of Education, Stanford
13. Public Education	(To be secured)	Eldon Jackson, Des Moines Public Schools
14. Incomes and Standards of Living	Faith Williams (Washington)	R. L. Currie, Bard College
15. Urbanism	Louis Wirth (Chicago)	Ray Lussenhop, Austin High School, Chicago
16. Consumer Problems	John Cassels (Stephens College)	James Mendenhall, Stephens College
17. Family Relations	E. W. Burgess (Chicago)	Joseph C. Baumgartner, Cleveland Schools
18. Health	Michael Davis (New York)	Lavone Hanna, School of Education, Stanford
19. Recreation	Jesse Steiner (U. of Washington)	Chester Babcock, Lincoln High School, Seattle
20. Crime	Thorsten Sellin (U. of Penn.)	Paul Busey, Bloom Township High School, Chicago Heights, Ill.
21. Race and Cultural Relations	Ruth Benedick (Columbia Univ.)	Nelle Bowman, Central High School, Tulsa
22. Public Administration	Leonard D. White (Chicago)	George Engberg, Leydon Community H. S., Franklin Park, Illinois
23. Housing	Louis Wirth (Chicago)	William Van Til, Experimental School, Ohio State University
24. Politics in Action	A. N. Holcome (Harvard)	James E. Downes, High School, Summit, N. J.
25. Youth	Floyd W. Reeves and Howard M. Bell (Washington)	Douglas Ward, Colorado State Teachers College, Greeley, Colorado
26. Agriculture	Christian Christensen (Wisconsin)	Royce H. Knapp, Grad. School of Ed., Harvard

The Defense of Democracy Through Education

The National Education Association announced on August 19 the organization of an "active body" to mobilize education in the service of the nation in the present crisis. The new agency will be known as the *Commission for the Defense of Democracy Through Education*. The aims and objectives of the commission are:

1. The protection of education and teachers against the attacks of any agency that has for its objective the undermining of the American School as a cornerstone of democratic ideals and practices.

2. The investigation of criticisms and movements against education, school systems, teachers' colleges, textbooks, teachers' organizations, and individual teachers. Such investigations will be handled in a way to obtain constructive and significant results.

3. A study of the groups opposing education to discover the sources of their funds and take such action as is considered appropriate. It will endeavor to protect the American schools from educational curtailment and financial restrictions due to competition for funds on the part of other national needs, and to defend education from such ravages as were inflicted upon it during the economic depression, when full educational opportunity was denied millions of youth.

4. The further strengthening of the school as a training ground for democracy. It will arouse both teachers and citizens to the importance of giving American youth through education a belief in democracy as strong as the faith in tyranny with which the world's dictators have indoctrinated the young people of the nations were totalitarianism rules. Toward this end it invites the co-operation of all organized groups of citizens.

This new Commission of the NEA, authorized at the Boston Convention last July, consists of approximately sixty members, an Executive Committee of ten, and one representative from each state teacher's association. States and communities are being invited to create commissions.

Donald DuShane, former president of the NEA and Superintendent of Schools, Columbus, Indiana, was chosen full-time Secretary of the Commission having his office at NEA headquarters in Washington, D. C.

THE COMMITTEE

Members of the Executive Committee of the Commission are:

Alonzo F. Myers, *Chairman*, School of Education, New York University.

Mrs. Mary D. Barnes, *Vice-chairman*, Teacher, Elizabeth, New Jersey.

Mrs. Myrtle H. Dahl, *Teacher*, Minneapolis, Minn. *President of the NEA*.

Kate Frank, *Teacher*, Muskogee, Oklahoma.

Willard E. Givens, *Executive Secretary*, NEA, Washington, D. C.

Frank P. Graham, *President*, Univ. of North Carolina, Chapel Hill, N. C.

Frederick Houk Law, *Teacher*, Brooklyn, N.Y.

E. O. Melby, *Dean*, Sch. of Education, Northwestern Univ., Evanston, Ill.

Orville C. Pratt, *Superintendent of Schools*, Spokane, Washington.

Joseph H. Saunders, *Superintendent of Schools*, Newport News, Virginia.

Activities of the National Committee on Education and Defense

In August 1940, fifty-five national organizations from every field of education banded together to form the *National Committee on Education and Defense*. The purpose of the new committee, sponsored by the American Council on Education and the National Education Association, was to consolidate and develop the educational facilities already enlisted in the defense program. In the year which followed, the direction and intensity of national defense efforts have changed substantially. From a state of "limited emergency" we have moved to "unlimited emergency." Selective service has been adopted and put into practice; increased training and production have been required for the armament and "lease-lend" programs; a start has been made in the mobilization of civilian defense. Because of these and numerous other moves, the National Committee during the year has dealt with an increasingly wide range of important defense problems involving educational activities.

At its first meeting the *National Committee on Education and Defense* set up simple machinery for operating. It organized an executive committee of eighteen members, under the joint chairmanship of George F. Zook, president of the American Council on Education, and Willard E. Givens, executive secretary of the National Education Association. Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, is a member of the Executive Committee and L. H. Dennis, Executive Secretary of the American Vocational Association is secretary of the Committee. The National Committee agreed that its work insofar as possible should be carried on by the organizations of which the committee is composed, and it defined for itself the following objectives:

1. Immediate and continuous representation of organized education for effective co-operation with the National Defense Council, the Federal Security Agency, and other Governmental divisions.
2. Stimulation and co-ordination of the efforts of educational organizations and institutions in projects related to national defense.
3. Dissemination of information regarding defense developments to educational organizations and institutions.
4. Maintenance and improvement of educational opportunities essential in a long-range national program.

Much of the work has been carried on by a series of active subcommittees. The following brief reports indicate the major activities of several subcommittees:

SUBCOMMITTEE ON MILITARY AFFAIRS

Activities in this field antedated the formation of the *National Committee on Education and Defense*, but this subcommittee has been exceptionally active during the past year. It played an important part in the develop-

ment of the Selective Service Act, assisted the President's Advisory Committee on Selective Service in the preparation of regulations, and co-operated in the writing of "directives" which defined "necessary occupations." The Senate and House Military Affairs Committees, Selective Service Administration, the War and Navy Departments, the Department of Labor, and other governmental agencies have called on the subcommittee for aid. The committee will soon complete a study of the decisions of local draft boards with respect to occupational deferment of college students. Continuous and effective liaison with eighteen hundred colleges is maintained by conferences and a special bulletin, *Higher Education and the National Defense*, is issued periodically by the American Council on Education. More than twenty-seven thousand copies of one issue of that bulletin which dealt with occupational deferment procedures were distributed, including copies to all local draft boards at the request of the Selective Service Administration. In February, a national conference, in which more than four hundred fifty college presidents from forty-two states and leading governmental figures participated, was called by the committee in Washington. The proceedings were published by the American Council on Education under the title, *Organizing Higher Education for National Defense*.

A smaller conference in July 1941 in Washington with governmental officials mapped out a suggested program for co-operation of institutions of higher education in national defense work.

The major share of the committee's time is now given to co-operation with the armed forces in the development of a comprehensive educational program for the camps. With the appointment of eight additional members, the membership is the same as that of the subcommittee on education of the Joint Army and Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation. On June 18 and 19 this group met with high officers of the War and Navy Departments to map out a program for the camps. Courses of study, library and visual education facilities, and group activities are being planned. Isaiah Bowman, president of Johns Hopkins University, is chairman of the subcommittee. During his absence in South America on a governmental assignment, Harry Woodburn Chase, chancellor of New York University, heads the group. Francis J. Brown, the executive secretary, maintains an office in the War Department as well as on the staff of the American Council on Education.

SUBCOMMITTEE ON TEACHING MATERIALS

The lack of materials to assist teachers and pupils to deal with defense issues, particularly at the secondary-school level, created a demand to which the National Committee has responded. A subcommittee was formed which requested the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators to prepare a series of pamphlets for teachers and secondary-school pupils on the presentation of certain defense problems in the public schools. Six pamphlets were prepared at a 14-day workshop in Washington of representatives from

the public school systems of Baltimore, Cleveland, Detroit, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, St. Louis and Washington, with Howard E. Wilson of Harvard University as co-ordinator. Issued in February by the Educational Policies Commission, they are: *Our Democracy, How May We Defend Democracy?*, *Suggestions for Teaching American History in the Present Emergency*, *The School—An Arsenal for Democracy*, *Current Documents on Democracy*, and *How You Can Strengthen Democracy*. Similar pamphlets for college teachers and students are now being outlined. The subcommittee was recently requested to consider a special series dealing with health, education, recreation, and welfare—four fundamentals in maintaining public morale. Ben G. Graham, superintendent of schools, Pittsburgh, is chairman of the subcommittee.

SUBCOMMITTEE ON VOCATIONAL TRAINING

The activities of schools and colleges in training defense workers are an outstanding example of the willingness and ability of education to take its part in the national defense. Under the direction of the United States Office of Education and other governmental agencies, more than a million men and women have been prepared for jobs in the expanding labor market. The National Committee early created a subcommittee to consider the major problems in defense training. In June, eleven recommendations were adopted and transmitted to Aubrey Williams, National Youth Administrator, and John W. Studebaker, Commissioner of Education. These recommendations warn against development of any agencies through federal funds which will parallel or duplicate existing educational facilities. They suggest that the "existing regular educational agencies be adjusted, expanded, and utilized to meet the needs of the times." The statement points to the danger of temporary federally-supported agencies becoming permanent through the creation of "vested interests" both in personnel and physical plant and equipment. A specific recommendation is that "if some Federal agencies such as the NYA and the CCC be continued during the period of the national defense emergency, these agencies operate within the scope of their original purposes; namely, to provide employment to youth unable otherwise to find employment." Alonzo G. Grace, state superintendent of education of Connecticut, is chairman of this subcommittee.

SUBCOMMITTEE ON PRE-SERVICE TRAINING

With adoption of Selective Service the National Committee considered a plan for local training programs to facilitate the movement of young men to and from military service. The first booklet prepared for the subcommittee, *Is Your Number Up?*, will be issued soon by the Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. A popularly written treatment of questions which selectees ask, this pamphlet will be followed by two others, *Attention! To Your Health*, and one dealing with educational opportunities during service. N. L. Englehardt, Teachers College, Columbia University, is chairman.

SUBCOMMITTEE ON COLLEGE WOMEN AND DEFENSE

Responsibility for national service rests on women to the same degree that it rests on men. The subcommittee in a report urges that colleges point out to young women the need of securing an education which will fit them to carry on their usual work in society while at the same time acquiring skills that are more needed in defense than normally, such as service in health, nutrition, home nursing, business skills, and recreation. The report was published in the bulletin, *Organizing Higher Education for National Defense*. Miss Meta Glass, president of Sweet Briar College, is chairman.

SUBCOMMITTEE ON LATIN-AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITIES

To assist the Office for Co-ordination of Commercial and Cultural Relations Between the American Republics, this subcommittee was recently organized. It has sponsored the visit of forty Latin-American scholars to the Eighth International Conference of the New Education Fellowship at Ann Arbor in July and to summer sessions in other institutions. Two hundred and fifty exhibits including diorama, photographs, books, maps, and other teaching materials are being prepared for schools and colleges in the United States. Bibliographies and special pamphlets are being developed. Luther H. Gulick, director of the Institute of Public Administration, is chairman.

In addition to the activities of these subcommittees, the Executive Committee has conferred with numerous other governmental agencies including the Treasury Department, the Federal Security Agency, the Office for Civilian Defense, and the National Roster of Scientific and Professional Personnel.

The National Committee on Education and Defense has almost completed its first year. One conclusion which was clear at the time of the creation of the National Committee assumed added importance with the passing of time. That is the constant need for emphasis on the obligation of every social institution, including the school, to continue to do its regular job, and if possible to do it better. This is not necessarily a spectacular assignment, but it is basic to national defense broadly conceived. As it enters its second year, the *National Committee on Education and Defense*, acting through the sixty organizations which now make up its membership, will continue to assist in the constructive development of the defense program, and at the same time will strive for the continued growth and improvement of education. The membership of the *National Committee on Education and Defense* includes at present sixty national associations of Education, including the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of which its executive secretary is the representative.



The librarian is a key figure in the instructional program of the Evansville (Indiana) High School. The first week of school the ninth-grader is introduced to the library and to its many services that reach out into the classrooms.

A Realistic Approach to Training for Citizenship

After much consideration and planning, during the spring of 1941, a series of Institutes of National Government was inaugurated in Washington, D. C., as the main activity of a newly-formed non-profit organization, the *National Capital School Visitors Council*. The first Institute, held last spring, was for a group of 200 students selected because of their qualities of leadership to come to Washington as representatives of 64 public and private secondary schools in 16 states east of the Mississippi. The purpose was to give unusual opportunities in the Capital of these potential leaders—opportunities to see democracy in action as exemplified in the workings of the Federal Government, and thereby to gain a fuller appreciation of the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship in the nation. There was a fairly even distribution of students, boys and girls, from four distinct areas: 50 students from 12 New England schools; 62 from 15 schools in the Middle Atlantic states; 46 students from 17 Midwestern schools; and 61 from 20 schools south of the Mason-Dixon Line. In addition to the 200 students (juniors and seniors) there were 19 faculty members associated in the Institute.

The five days in Washington were occupied not in ordinary sightseeing but in concentrated visits designed to show how the three branches of the Federal Government function in actual practice. A full day was spent on Capitol Hill, observing Congress in action—not only attending sessions of the Senate and House, but calling at the working offices of Congressmen and seeing Congressional committees in operation. Before attending a session

of the Supreme Court of the United States, the Institute was greeted by Associate Justice Frankfurter who described the Court's functions. In the administrative branch, attention was focused on three agencies as typical of others and closely touching the lives of all citizens: The Department of the Interior, the Department of Agriculture, and the Social Security Board. A morning was also spent at the Pan American Union, conferring with the Director General, and with a spokesman of the Department of State, Division of Latin American Republics. In between these conferences various trips were scheduled: to the Lincoln Memorial and Mount Vernon; to Arlington National Cemetery, where the Institute laid a wreath upon the Tomb of the Unknown Soldier; and to the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis, Maryland.

Upon returning to their respective schools, the delegates were expected to bring to their fellow students as much as possible of the experience in Washington. This was done by school assemblies at which the representatives summarized what they had learned and their general impressions, by articles in school papers and reports filed in school libraries, by exhibits of materials acquired during the trip, and by calling the delegates into social studies classes when the subject matter was pertinent. It was the general opinion among the principals of the schools participating that benefit accrued not only to the individuals who had attended the Institute, but also in some measure to the school as a whole. For in each school a small group of students could now speak with deep sincerity of their newborn sense of nearness to National Government and of a strengthened faith in the democratic way of life.

An Institute of National Government for Social Studies Teachers was held in Washington a month after the Students' Institute. It was divided into two consecutive sessions, four days centering on the theme of the Government and the National Defense Program, and three on the Government and the Conservation of Human Resources. This was attended by 53 teachers from 42 schools and colleges in a dozen states.

The Institutes of National Government scheduled to take place during the 1941-42 school year are as follows—two Institutes for Secondary-School Students: Session I, February 2-6 inclusive; Session II, March 30-April 3, an Institute for Teachers of the Social Studies, April 6-11. Residence center for all three conferences will be the undergraduate campus of the American University, Washington, D. C. Such first-hand observation of the Federal Government at work could not help but vitalize the teaching of courses in American History, Government, and Problems of Democracy. A 14-page report on the 1941 Students' Institute and more complete information of the 1942 program are available by addressing Dr. Henry W. Willard, Director of the National Capital School Visitors Council, Evans Building, 1420 New York Avenue, Washington, D. C.

School Training Program for the NYA Out-of-School Workers

The improvement and expansion of a program of organized education for out-of-school youth should be an important concern in every state and community. Among the urgent needs of youth, which this program should meet, are: the development of employability, preparation for future occupational success, upbuilding of knowledge and attitudes basic to enhanced civic and social performance, and strengthening the tendency to pursue systematic general education beyond the time of leaving full-time school and throughout life. To be sure, some young people will have had these needs met by the time they conclude their regular schooling. But many others will leave, or be graduated from school, with one or more of these needs inadequately met.

It is evident that a program should be flexible to permit adjustment in such manner as to start with each youth where he is, taking into account his points of strength and weakness, and building up on whatever previous education and specific skills he may already have.

Every public agency concerning itself with the welfare of young people should contribute to the meeting of this problem in whatever ways are consistent with the primary purposes of this agency; and it should, moreover, accept the responsibility for seeing to it that young people who are under its immediate supervision are brought into contact with other agencies which can better serve youth in particular respects than it can. That is to say, no single agency should expect or be expected to provide out-of-school youth with all of the assistance they may need.

Young men and women who are employed on the out-of-school work program of the National Youth Administration are all in need of employment. Practically all of them need direct occupational training. A great many of them are not well prepared to carry out their civic and social responsibilities.

Note:—The National School Work Council is an organization of schoolmen representing various educational institutions, an organization which is working co-operatively with the National Youth Administration in order to provide the best opportunities for out-of-school youth. The personnel of this committee is composed of Paul B. Jacobson, Principal, University of Chicago High School, Paul A. Rehms, Superintendent of Schools, Lakewood, Ohio, Charles H. Lake, Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio, Irvin E. Rosa, Superintendent of Schools, Rochester, Minnesota, A. C. Flora, Superintendent of Schools, Columbia, S. C., Warren Seyfert, Associate Professor of Education, Harvard University, S. D. Shankland, Executive Secretary, American Association of School Administrators, George C. Mann, Director, Division of Student Work, National Youth Administration, and Paul E. Elicker, Executive Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals. This group recently held a meeting in Washington, D. C., at which time this article was prepared and adopted.

ities. Many are not well disposed toward further education. Young NYA workers should be provided with accessible and appropriate opportunities to continue their education even though their days of full-time schooling are over.

EDUCATION MUST MEET WORKERS' NEEDS

Some of the training which the young worker needs can best be given him on the job by his supervisor. This training will cover principally those immediate problems with which he is confronted in the carrying out of his job. In this respect, the NYA supervisor is doing only what any good foreman does for a beginning worker in private employment. In addition to needing this on-the-job training, the young worker will frequently have need of a broader and more organized type of occupational training which, although related to the performance of his job, serves to give him a wider understanding of his field of work. This broader occupational training cannot be satisfactorily given incidentally on the job. It calls for the instructional pattern which our schools have developed, and it should be given under the auspices of the public school system. Responsibility for giving needed training in civic matters and in fundamental skills should be divided in accordance with the same principles as have been recommended with respect to vocational training.

By way of summary, the education provided NYA workers should not be limited solely to training in manipulative skills, but should be as inclusive as the needs of young people; and wherever systematic instruction is called for, it should be provided by the schools. It is, therefore, much to be desired that every NYA out-of-school worker be engaged in some appropriate type of in-school education.

Since the young workers are under the immediate observation and supervision of the NYA staff, that staff must accept principal responsibility for (1) discovering the educational deficiencies of young workers which can be remedied by in-school training and (2) making available to the local school authorities information as to the type and extent of the educational need which exists. In its turn, the school must accept responsibility for developing courses to fit the needs of these young people.

The National Youth Administration and the school authorities should establish a liaison service for the improvement of immediate and future relationships. State school-work councils should perform an over-all advisory function by pooling the experience and observations of their members and making the results of their deliberations available to all agencies concerned.

Common Points of View Regarding Individual Differences in American Education

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The problem of individual differences has, within our time, come to be recognized as one of the most important with which education must deal. Though we are sensitive to its importance, there is, however, a tendency to oversimplify it. Ask the typical student of education what needs to be "done about" individual differences, and the answer will follow promptly: "Why, it is necessary to provide for them, of course!" By which he probably means that we must ascertain the intelligence of the pupils, group them on this basis, and provide for each group a different education.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCE A MOOT QUESTION

Consider what is really involved. Pupils differ from each other not only in intelligence, but in age, sex, health, physical development, emotional make-up, social and economic background, race, religion, linguistic development, social attitudes, aptitudes and special interests, personal qualities like initiative, "stick-to-it-iveness," and so forth—all of which may be shown to have bearing, in greater or lesser degree, upon their education. To differentiate education on the basis of intelligence alone, it may reasonably be asserted, is to disregard too many other important factors. Moreover, there is disagreement as to what constitutes intelligence. By some, intelligence is regarded as a single, general capacity, operating with a high degree of consistency in specific situations; by others, as a complex of different, specific capacities, each of which may presumably serve as a basis for differentiation. The problem is further complicated by the controversy as to whether intelligence is very largely decided by heredity or whether environment is an important factor in the making of intelligence. Education may be differentiated in type, in degree of enrichment, or in the method presented.

The problem of individual differences cannot be settled by beginning at the end, that is, by examining various proposed educational devices and techniques—homogeneous grouping, differentiated curriculums, special schools, individual contract plans,—and deciding among them. There are involved certain basic theoretical premises, and there are at stake issues which have immense bearing upon our social living. This became strikingly evident when the writer was engaged in an investigation of American theories of education.¹ Every theory of education possessed its own point of view regarding individual differences, and this point of view grew out of the fundamental values it accepted, the kind of society it sought to achieve, the system of psychology with which it was allied. It seemed, in short, as if every innocent suggestion for differentiating education had behind it a good deal of thinking designed to influence man in vital ways.

¹Justman, Joseph, *Theories of Secondary Education in the United States*. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1940.

In the following pages there are outlined four different views regarding individual differences, each with its set of basic ideas, its implications for democratic social living, and its proposals for education. What is presented, is merely a sketch. The reader is urged to examine further some of the writings cited in connection with each point of view, or to consult the more extensive treatment accorded to the topic in *Theories of Secondary Education in the United States*.

POINT OF VIEW I:

The most important difference among individuals is the difference in intelligence, which is most notably evidenced by the capacity for dealing with ideas. With respect to intelligence, human beings are greatly unequal; and both school and society must so conduct themselves as to take cognizance of this. Intelligence is inherited, and cannot be significantly improved by training. Intelligence is the only legitimate criterion of human worth.

Who supports this point of view?—This conception of individual differences is historically the oldest, and has been the most influential in education. In our day, it is supported by at least two different groups of educators, who in other respects are not generally in agreement. On the one hand, there are the traditionalists, classicists, or humanists—call them what you will—who, in individually varying degrees, bring to bear upon modern education the values which have been identified with education in the past.² On the other hand, there is a large number of educational scientists who, approaching the problem inductively and employing scientific techniques, have reached similar conclusions.³

Theoretical basis—According to the first group, the most important human attribute is mind or intelligence. It is mind or intelligence which accounts for the superiority of man in the world of nature, and which invests man with the dignity of humanness. In turn, intelligence is the only true index of potential worth among men. Individuals differ greatly in the amount of intelligence they possess; they differ, accordingly, in the essential worth they possess as human beings. Intelligence is a single, general capacity, consisting essentially in the ability to conceive, apprehend, and apply ideas. Possessing this general capacity, an individual is able, given intellectual content and moral standards, to deal effectively with the very many spe-

²This reference is to such men as Nicholas Murray Butler, Norman Foerster, Robert M. Hutchins, Isaac L. Kandel, and William S. Learned. *Vide*: Butler, *The Meaning of Education*, revised edition, 1915; Foerster, *The American State University*, 1937; Hutchins, *The Higher Learning in America*, 1936; Kandel, *Dilemma of Democracy*, 1934; Learned, *The Quality of the Educational Process in the United States and in Europe*, 1927.

³Notable among these are Lewis M. Terman and the late Leta S. Hollingworth. E. L. Thorndike can probably be identified with this point of view, although his definition of intelligence gives strong support to the educational scientists noted in Point of View III. For articles by Hollingworth and Thorndike, *vide* the symposium on "Education for Leadership" in the *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 40, April 1930; by Terman, *vide* "The Gifted Student and His Academic Environment," *School and Society* 49:65-73, Jan. 21, 1939, and "Intelligence in a Changing Universe," *School and Society* 51:465-470, April 13, 1940.

It is important to keep in mind that not all educational scientists fall into the present category. Educational scientists are pretty well distributed among the various points of view regarding individual differences.

cific problems which confront him in his living. As far as we know, intelligence is the gift of heredity. Environment and education help to cultivate and train the intelligence but cannot increase it.

The educational scientists identified with this point of view concur in all respects, save that they do not postulate any explicit theory of intelligence.⁴ Rather, their approach is through the instrument of the intelligence test which, in essence, consists of combinations of samplings of various types of reactions regarded, by common consent, as intellectual. (Since, up to the present time, intelligence tests have heavily emphasized the use of words and symbols in situations involving abstract thinking,⁵ the kind of capacity they have measured is not unlike the kind which the first group assumes.) Results of intelligence testing have shown that (1) individuals vary greatly in the degree of intelligence they possess, and (2) apparently intelligence is determined by heredity rather than by environment and training.

Social implications—Except, perhaps, in an assumed ethical sense, human beings are not equal. Nature has made them unequal by endowing them with varying degrees of intelligence. It has decreed that some shall possess superior possibilities, some ordinary, some inferior. A good society guides itself in the light of this knowledge. As citizens in a democracy, all individuals should be accorded equal treatment: they shall enjoy the right of suffrage, civil liberties, equality under the law, and so forth. But apart from this, "to treat all individuals equally is to treat them unequally."⁶

In a good society, leadership is vested in men of greatest intellectual ability, in a natural *élite* which has been especially trained for leadership. It is not improper for a democracy to possess an aristocratic element: indeed, it is necessary. But the aristocracy should be one of intellect. Only when the functions of leadership are discharged by a trained intellectual *élite*, supported by a body of trained and enlightened citizenry, can there be assurance that the state will comport itself with wisdom, justice, and dignity.

Educational implications—It is the function of the school to help each person to develop to the extent that his inherited capacity makes possible (and at least up to a certain minimal level made necessary by the demands of civilized living). Because of differences in native ability, the same education cannot be appropriate for all. Up to a certain point education should be common;⁷ but, surely before the end of the compulsory school period, education should have become differentiated.

The ideal educational principle is, of course, to provide for every pupil his own education. But the large numbers of pupils with whom we have to

⁴"As a matter of fact, general intelligence has rightly been assumed to exist and psychologists have gone about the measurement of an individual's general ability without waiting for an adequate psychological definition."—Rudolph Pintner, *Intelligence Testing*, p. 45, 1930 edition.

⁵"At the present time the great majority of tests may be thought of as measuring abstract intelligence." *Id.*, p. 62. One may convince himself that this is still true by examining a file of intelligence tests in any Educational library.

⁶Butler, N. M., *Annual Report of the President to the Trustees of Columbia University*, 1920, p. 37.

⁷Individual educators differ on the extent to which education shall be common. For example, Butler and Kandel insist that a relatively large core of common education is needed, while Foerster is probably at the other extreme.

deal preclude this for the immediate future. The next best principle is that of homogeneous grouping. It is necessary to organize pupils in homogeneous ability groups, providing for each group its own type of education, and paying attention to individual differences, as far as possible, within each group. Differentiation implies different kinds of curriculum and different kinds of schools. It implies learning varied not only in degree but in kind.

The obligation of society to educate is not the same toward all. Equality of educational opportunity does not mean identity of opportunity. Rather, opportunity must be proportionate to ability. Each person should be given the opportunity to which he is, by virtue of intelligence and industry, entitled. It follows that the bright pupil should obtain a richer and more extensive education than the dull (although the latter is not to be neglected). This has not been done so far. It is necessary to invent educational materials and devise methods which will stimulate superior pupils to do their best, and which will prepare them for social leadership. It is probably best to carry on such education in separate schools.

For the pupils at the other extreme, the dull ones, separate schools will probably also have to be established, offering a very different type of education. (The curriculum of these schools will probably need to emphasize educational activities of a concrete, non-verbal, educationally useful sort; whereas the curriculum for bright pupils will necessarily be more abstract, theoretical, and intellectual.) For the large group of pupils in between, an effort should be made to modify the present academic curriculum, without, however, losing sight of the transcendent importance of such education. In general, the practice of homogeneous grouping on the basis of intelligence and of differentiating in subject matter and method of instruction must be followed, if we are to discharge our responsibility to our pupils.

POINT OF VIEW II:

It is true that people are born with varied mental endowments. But what is much more important is that all normal people possess a tremendous capacity to learn. It is by learning how to make the right adaptations to situations, rather than by any inner development of inherited traits, that we can become properly adjusted to our environment. Original propensities toward inequality, therefore, can be greatly reduced by training. Our problem is to bring all individuals, regardless of native endowment, up to a high standard of common living.

Who supports this point of view?—Historically this point of view is much more recent than the first whose antithesis it is. Though probably implicit in the eighteenth century doctrine of human perfectability, it emerged clearly from the theory of evolution formulated in the nineteenth century. At the present time it is supported by a group of empirical thinkers who may be termed social evolutionists,⁸ and by a growing number of educa-

⁸Most prominent among these are William C. Bagley, Henry C. Morrison, and Charles H. Judd. Vide: Bagley, *The Educative Process*, 1905; *Determinism in Education*, 1925; *Education and Emergent Man*, 1934; Morrison, *Basic Principles of Education*, 1934; Judd, *Psychology of Social Institutions*, 1926; *Education and Social Progress*, 1934.

tional scientists (called environmentalists) who, on the basis of recently procured experimental evidence, are challenging the determinism which, they assert, has characterized psychometric science.⁹

Theoretical basis—According to the Social Evolutionists, human adjustment and progress depend, not so much upon the factor of biological heredity, as upon the assimilation, through social means, of previously acquired human learnings. Society collects, stores, and transmits to the individual the adaptations it has learned to make. The individual, in turn, learns to use these adaptations in achieving his own adjustment. This is mind: the utilization of learnings, gained from previous human experience, in making one's adjustment. While the physiological basis for mind is inherited, mind itself is not. Mind is a power which is developed in the course of living, social and individual. A civilized man possesses much more "mind" than a savage, an adult much more than a child. Mind is a product of heredity and learning. Thus, even when an individual is handicapped in terms of native endowment—that is, he learns slowly, his perception is not keen, his retentive power not great—he can still, by dint of arduous self-application, raise himself to the point where he can make successful adjustment within the common social environment. The naturally slow learner will probably never overtake the naturally rapid one, but in the course of learning he will inevitably reduce the distance between them.

The approach of the scientists is, once again, experimental rather than theoretical. As a result of continued investigations in the nature-nurture problem there has turned up evidence which, in the judgment of this group, shows that environment and training constitute a rather considerable factor in the making of intelligence. It is impossible to say to what extent these scientists subscribe also to the theory of the social evolutionists as described above, but they are in agreement on the social and educational implications.

Social implications—The fact that human beings are born with unequal possibilities does not mean that they remain precisely so. In society mankind has a powerful instrument for fostering equality among individuals. Society is a storehouse of learning, and social processes are the means through which learnings are imparted to the individual. Society has a common obligation to all: through social processes, and especially through education, to equip all individuals with what they need to maintain a high order of living. The genius will undoubtedly forge ahead; society, however, must take special pains to see to it that the slow learner does not fall too far behind. Human worth is reckoned not by a person's initial promise but by what he becomes as a result of learning.

Democracy is more than a political concept. At the basis of democracy there is a recognition that all may share in the cultural fruits of experience, that the common man may ultimately enjoy in his living what the pioneering mind of genius first achieved. Democracy does not imply equalitarian-

⁹Vide: B. L. Wellman, "Iowa Studies on the Effects of Schooling," pp. 377-399, in *Intelligence: Its Nature and Nurture*, 39th Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education, 1940; B. L. Wellman and G. D. Stoddard, "The I.Q.: A Problem of Social Construction," *Social Frontier*, 5:151-152, February 1939; also, Volume 19, No. 2 of *Educational Method*, November 1939.

ism, but it also does not imply that any group should receive special preferment, whether by virtue of race, intelligence, money, etc. It is true that democracy needs good leaders, but the best way to obtain such leaders is to produce an educated citizenry which will choose its leaders carefully, support them when right, and "show them to their seats" when wrong.

Educational implications—The function of the school is to help each individual to develop the "mind" or "intelligence" or capacity to make effective adjustment to environment. The goal is attained as each person learns to utilize in his living the learnings which he has obtained from experience—his own, that of his society, and the entire human race.

The obligation to educate all individuals up to a high standard of civilized living is much greater than the obligation to give advanced training to a favored few, e.g., the bright. Equality of opportunity means exactly what it says. It does not mean equity of educational opportunity on the basis of native mental endowment—more opportunity to the bright.

It is evident that the emphasis is to be primarily on common studies. Adjustment is to be made to a common environment, not to individual environments; hence the need for common offerings heavily outweighs the need of differentiated studies. Of course, some differentiated education is necessary, in vocational preparation, for example. But differentiated studies, whether academic or vocational, should come after the core of common studies has been completed. In the common studies, such deviation as is allowed individuals should be peripheral rather than central activities.

Individual differences constitute primarily a problem of method. Some pupils learn better one way, others another. Some require the use of special learning materials, greater practice periods, etc. An effort should be made to teach each individual in the way he requires. But the existence of individual differences among pupils should not influence the ultimate purpose of preparing all persons to live intelligently in a common social environment.

Probably some homogeneous grouping is justified—on the basis of what pupils require in the way of *methods* of teaching. But homogeneous grouping should be done within the framework of common studies. It should not be carried to the extreme where different groups are receiving different types of education. Nor should placement in any group carry with it any sort of stigma of inferiority.

POINT OF VIEW III:

That individual differences among people are a factor of prime importance in all human considerations is undeniable. But every normal individual is of great potential worth, regardless of differences in inherited capacities. Individuals differ among themselves not in one, all-inclusive respect, but in many particular respects. Each person can do some things better than others, and it is through the things that he does well, that he can best realize his individual worth.

Who supports this point of view?—This conception of individual differences has only recently begun to influence American education. It is

part of the general pragmatic attitude which began to develop in American education at the turn of the century, reflecting, intellectually, the teaching of William James. Its sponsors today are motivated less by philosophic considerations than by the need for providing a satisfactory secondary education for the large number of youth, newly entered in the school, to whom the classical curriculum is unsuited. They are proceeding empirically, step by step, evolving new principles as they gradually withdraw further from the old.¹⁰ In addition, support has come from workers in the field of psychological testing who are not satisfied with the assumption that intelligence is a unit, general capacity, 'adequately measured by prevailing intelligence tests.

Theoretical basis—We need to rid ourselves of certain inherited and erroneous notions regarding human nature and intelligence, and to rely, at least until science supplies us with more exact information, upon facts supported by ordinary experience. It is apparent, for example, that a human being is a creature of parts: no one is equally good in doing all things; each displays greater talent or skill in doing some things than in others. This seems to be true if the amount of training is constant: we may conclude, therefore, that a person inherits different capacities and aptitudes in different degrees. (It also seems to be true, however, that there is a positive correlation among inherited capacities and aptitudes.)

A reasonable definition of intelligence is: intelligence is something which expresses itself in the ability to do things *well*. If this is acceptable, then it follows that an individual is the possessor, not of one general intelligence, but of a complex of specific intelligences, varying from each other in degree. Thus, capacity for thinking in abstract terms constitutes one type of intelligence; motor ability, another; artistic ability, another; ability to get on with people, another. No one has the right arbitrarily to proclaim that one type of intelligence is superior to the others. Living in a highly complicated society requires the use of many different kinds of talents: that of the author, scholar, doctor, mechanic, artist, carpenter, politician, and soldier. Any inherited capacity or aptitude which a person possesses renders him a potentially worthy individual. He realizes this worth as he develops.

Social implications—Essentially individuals are neither equal nor unequal with respect to each other. They are *different from* one another. Each individual possesses potential worth. His ultimate worth is estimated by a social criterion—his usefulness to himself and to others. An individual is more worthy if, in the judgment of society, he contributes more to its common well-being. It is not proper to accord any special group of individuals, in advance, preferential status.

Democracy is that form of societal organization in which all men have equal voice in the determination of societal policies. A democracy recognizes worth and indispensability of all human beings. It recognizes the

¹⁰Expressions of this point of view have often appeared in the pages of this Bulletin and in the publications of the Association of Secondary-School Principals, especially *Issues of Secondary Education*, *Functions of Secondary Education*, and *That All May Learn*. For other discussions, vide: T. H. Briggs, *The Great Investment*, 1930; *Secondary Education*, 1933; H. R. Douglass, *Secondary Education for Youth in Modern America*, 1937; F. T. Spaulding, *High School and Life*, 1938.

value of pooling judgments arising from many different kinds of experience. And it assumes the obligation of assisting every individual to develop his talents, especially those which he possesses in relatively greatest abundance. There is no validity in the claim that in a democracy social leadership should be vested especially in those manifesting a particular type of intelligence; viz., abstract or academic intelligence.

Educational implications—To educate means systematically to help each individual to develop his capacities and aptitudes in socially desirable directions. Development should be furthest in those respects in which the individual shows greatest promise: his special capacities and aptitudes must become the means whereby he achieves general competence as well as the means whereby he makes his special contribution to society. This does not mean, however, that a person's education should narrowly center.

Capacities and aptitudes must be ascertained before they can be developed. It, therefore, becomes an auxiliary function of the school to offer a program of activities, in themselves educative, through which may be disclosed the lines along which each pupil may most profitably follow.

All normal individuals are educable. They are not all educable in the same ways nor by the same means. To educate some means to pay special attention to certain capacities and aptitudes, and to employ certain types of learning activities; to educate others it may be necessary to emphasize different types of skill and to use different types of learning activities. Equality of educational opportunity lies in giving every pupil the right education.

It is necessary, therefore, to differentiate learning activities, curriculums, even schools. A single academic curriculum, enriched or simplified for academically bright or dull pupils, will not do. We must be careful, however, that (1) common studies are not neglected, (2) differentiated studies grow out of a process of careful exploration of pupil capacities and aptitudes, (3) the differentiated program is broadly educational rather than merely vocational. As matters stand now, the senior high school is the place in which the emphasis may be shifted from common to differentiated studies.

The school curriculum today is most nearly appropriate for pupils with considerable academic ability. It is necessary now to concentrate on the needs of pupils possessing other types of ability. New types of learning activities and materials must be devised. It is important, however, that these shall not be regarded as offering an inferior, substitute education to those pupils who cannot succeed in the academic work.

The practice of homogeneous grouping is thoroughly justified. But such grouping should not be made on the basis of academic ability alone. Other types of ability—mechanical, artistic—should be considered.

POINT OF VIEW IV:

More important than differences in particular traits and abilities are differences in the total make-up or personality of individuals. With respect to personality, no two individuals are alike. Human beings are not commensurable. Each person can be under-

stood only in the light of his background of experiences, needs, purposes. Each human life is an end in itself, and each human being the equal of every other. It is not proper for any human agency—the school or society—to rank human beings in any order of merit.

Who supports this point of view?—This is the point of view associated with what is called Progressive Education. Since the philosophy of Progressive Education, at its broadest, is a synthesis of elements drawn from several sources—the Experimentalist philosophy of John Dewey, the Gestalt and purposive schools of psychology, and mental hygiene—it is likely that supporters of this point of view are representative of these sources.¹¹

Theoretical basis—Man is a product of his experience. He is not, moreover, a mechanism of separable parts, but a whole organism. Every experience he has, every change he undergoes, affects him wholly. Since no two life-chains of experience are identical, no two personalities are identical. And since, as far as we know, the individual life is the supreme end in nature, each human being is as good as every other, and each personality merits equal regard with every other.

Intelligence is not a substance, possessed by individuals in quantities. Intelligence means acting intelligently, i.e., in such a way as to realize consequences beneficial to one's living. Whether an action is intelligent or not can be understood only in terms of what a person proposes to do in a particular situation. Intelligence is a specific, changing, unstandardizable quality of behavior. Except superficially, intelligences are not commensurable.

All intelligent action is dominated by purpose. It is clarity and strength of purpose, rather than some innate capacity, which determines whether an individual will be successful in any undertaking. Human personality achieves integration through the realization of purpose. Frustration of the effort to achieve purpose is a disintegrating factor. If an individual is to be assisted, it must be in terms of purposes he has set for himself.

Social implications—Society is constituted of many individuals, each pursuing his chosen ends of living. Human beings operate in close and continuous inter-relationship, but it cannot be said that a person ever loses his identity as an individual. Each person is a self-propelled being, seeking to achieve happiness for himself. Since each individual's life is his own to live, no one can pronounce one set of purposes as superior to another, provided that both are legitimate. (By legitimate purposes are meant those which seek to foster a person's well-being without interfering with the well-being of others.) A good working principle for society is that each person is to be free to pursue his own ends of living provided that he does not interfere with the legitimate ends of another.

¹¹Exposition of this point of view may be found in: H. B. Albery and O. G. Brim, "The Relation of Newer Educational Practices to Grouping," pp. 117-133 in *The Grouping of Pupils*, 35th Yearbook, Part I. National Society for the Study of Education, 1936; J. L. Childs, *Education and the Philosophy of Experimentalism*, 1931; L. T. Hopkins, *Integration: Its Meaning and Application*, 1937; V. T. Thayer and others, *Reorganizing Secondary Education*, 1939.

There are, accordingly, in a truly good society no betters and no inferiors. Each person is a self-respecting and a respected individual who cannot be weighed or compared against any other. The good society does not have any privileged classes, whether determined by race, wealth, or intelligence. Democracy is that manner of social living which offers each individual opportunities for maximum self-development. It is evident that democracy does not connote any stationary arrangement of political, economic, or cultural institutions. Such institutions as, within a given culture and at a given time, assist in the development of all individuals are democratic; those which impede are not democratic, regardless of their history.

Educational implications—To educate means to offer each individual, in terms of his needs and purposes, guidance and assistance in developing a wholesome and effective personality. Since there is no stereotype of needs and purposes, there can be no stereotyped form of education. Education, in its essential meaning, is truly an individual affair.

This does not mean, however, that each individual must have his own school or be educated in isolation from others. Individuals can develop best when they live and learn in active inter-relationship with other individuals. The best learning situation is a social situation. It is not necessary to sort out pupils according to "ability." There is much to be gained by having pupils with diverse talents learn within a common situation. Each pupil will learn what he is particularly impelled to learn, and will contribute what he especially can contribute to the common whole. Providing for individual differences means helping the individual pupil to satisfy his own needs and interests.

Of course, no single curriculum can serve the needs of all pupils. Pupils in different communities, or even in different localities in the same communities, may have different educational needs, arising out of their particular background and situation. The curriculum of the school should grow out of the needs which the pupils show. But this does not mean that some pupils should engage in "liberal" studies, others in work activities, others in art studies, and so on. All pupils need a balanced program of studies.

There is room for homogeneous grouping within a single school. But such grouping should be made on the basis of pupil purposes and interests, rather than on the basis of so-called ability. Since purposes and interests are changing things, there can, of necessity, be no permanent grouping arrangement. Homogeneous groups should be formed to accomplish definite purposes; the purposes accomplished, the groups should be reformed. Special instruction, over a longer period of time, may be given to groups which require it, such as college entrance or employment.

Homogeneous grouping as it is practiced at the present time (that is, on the basis of "ability") has a pernicious influence. It is undemocratic, and it reveals a basic misunderstanding of what education really is.

The Honor-Work Group

BURR D. COE

Co-ordinator of Honor-Work Classes, Monroe High School, Rochester, N. Y.

The Honor-Work Group at Monroe High School is an experiment in education for the mentally gifted pupils. It is the school's purpose to provide an environment within which these pupils may have an opportunity to broaden the content of their courses and to learn to study effectively and independently. The pupils are encouraged to proceed at their own rate, but time saved in learning is used for enrichment and assistance to others rather than for acceleration.

Sixty pupils selected from the ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades comprise the group. These pupils are selected on the basis of superior mental ability and past school record. The intelligence rating of these boys and girls is within the upper one per cent of Terman's classification of intelligence.¹ Their past school record must be distinctly above average but need not be superior in every subject.

ONLY CERTAIN SUBJECTS TAKEN BY ALL

The group is arbitrarily divided into two sections, where the pupils are placed in ungraded classes in English, mathematics, science, social studies, French, and typing. All the pupils study English and typing, but the numbers in the other subjects vary, because of diversity of elections. For example, in each mathematics class there are pupils of elementary algebra, plane geometry, and intermediate algebra (all required); and some pupils of trigonometry, advanced algebra, and solid geometry. If the pupil elects a subject not in the Honor-Work program, he is scheduled for that subject in a regular class. All the classes meet five times a week except typing, which meets two times a week. The pupils are in regular gymnasium classes and home rooms, and take part in all the regular extra-curriculum activities of the school.

The school has provided two classrooms (with an adjoining office and library) where all Honor-Work classes meet except for science classes, which are held in a specially equipped science room. The pupils remain in the rooms, and the teachers come to them. These rooms are equipped with special cupboards, filing cabinets, tables and chairs, maps, bulletin boards, reference books, magazine racks, typewriters, and other necessary equipment for their exclusive use.

The pupils must take the entire Honor-Work program. For example, they cannot elect only English in the Honor-Work classes. The parents and prospective pupils are first made familiar with the program and then given an opportunity to elect it or not. Once in the group, the pupils agree to remain long enough to give it a fair trial, both from the school's point of

¹Terman, Lewis, M., *The Intelligence of School Children*, New York: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1919, p. 8.

view and their own. They also agree not to use the group as a means for accelerating secondary-school graduation. The school is not interested in shortening the secondary-school course or in doing college work in the high school.

Because these pupils are more able than their fellow pupils in the school, they should be able to develop superior habits of work and better attitudes of responsibility, initiative, self-discipline, and leadership. The purpose of this program is to provide the environment within which this development may take place. Emphasis is placed on quality of work rather than on quantity. Much time is spent in teaching these pupils how to study, how to plan their time for its most effective use, and how to discriminate between worthy and unworthy use of their abilities.

Each pupil is provided with a permanent pass which permits him to go freely about the building as necessity arises. He thus develops responsibility for his own conduct. Because of the nature of the classwork, he has considerably more freedom to decide for what purpose he will use his time during any given class period.

The methods of teaching vary a great deal with the subjects. In the English class, for example, it is possible to have many group activities where all the grades can take part. This is true to a lesser degree in some of the other subjects. Long-range planning is necessary on the part of pupils and teachers. Time schedules are worked out months in advance. From these master schedules pupils make their own daily time schedule and study budget. Very few daily assignments are given out by the teacher. It is largely left to the pupil to decide how much and when he will study. Specific suggestions are given as to how to study any particular topic or any plan but little pressure is brought to bear on the pupil to force him to carry out the plan. The teacher serves as a guide and counselor rather than a task-master.

MUCH PUPIL INITIATIVE PROVIDED

The normal procedure in most subjects is to use the seminar method. Previews of new topics are given by the teacher or frequently by a pupil. Important points to look for and things worth remembering are pointed out by the teacher. Pupils are more often asking questions of the teacher than the teacher asking questions of the pupil. Conferences are scheduled with groups of pupils as needed or as requested by them. Dramatizations, talks, papers, and demonstrations are frequently given by pupils to the group as a whole. Radio broadcasts, movies, recordings, exhibits, guest speakers, trips, and visitations are used frequently to supplement the textbook study. The pupils have their own library consisting of many hundreds of books for supplementary reading in all subjects. This is in addition to the regular school library.

The pupils assume much responsibility for self-government. They meet regularly for a free discussion of joint problems. They make plans for the conduct and control of the group and then, through their own representatives, present these proposals to the faculty of the Honor-Work classes for

consideration. They conduct their own "court" for the consideration of violations of their code of conduct. They conduct their own study halls without a teacher present. The older and more advanced pupils feel responsible for assisting the younger ones. They plan social gatherings such as parties for themselves or teas for their parents and teachers. In all these matters the teachers act only as advisors, not as administrators.

Certain standards are set for attainment in each subject. These standards involve habits and attitudes as well as proficiency in subject matter. For example, in mathematics a pupil evaluates his progress in regard to such matters as accuracy, knowledge of facts and processes, application of facts and processes to problems, lesson preparation, organization of work, and co-operation and self-control. The teacher periodically sits down with the pupil and counsels him in regard to his progress towards these objectives. The teacher makes suggestions for improvement and gives praise where praise is due. No attempt is made to set a grade on his work. No report cards are taken home for parental signatures. In cases of wide divergence between ability and accomplishment parents are consulted directly. Only at the end of the school year, after the pupil has taken final examinations, is there any final, summarized rating given by the teacher. By this procedure the pupil learns to appreciate knowledge and scholastic power for its own sake rather than to work simply for marks.

ALL PUPILS ACTIVELY PARTICIPATE

A concerted effort is made to insure the participation of every pupil in worth-while extra-curriculum activities. These pupils are trained not to use their superior ability selfishly. Stress is placed on the various service organizations within the school which the pupil may profitably support. Leadership is developed by exercising responsibility as officers of school organizations and in student government. Evidence that the student body of the school has accepted the members of the Honor-Work group as leaders is found in the fact that a large number of the highest school offices are held by members of this group.

One faculty member acts as co-ordinator of the Honor-Work classes and is responsible for matters of pupil guidance. A careful system of personnel records is kept for each pupil. Frequent conferences are held with parents. Considerable flexibility of scheduling is necessary for a group of this kind, and special programs need to be worked out. To insure that each pupil makes the most of his opportunity within the group, the co-ordinator frequently consults each member of the group. The co-ordinator also acts as advisor to the group as a whole in regard to group projects. A special effort is made to assist each senior in making his plans for the future. Since practically all of these pupils will go on to college, every effort is made to assist parents and pupils in selecting the proper college and in making whatever scholarship applications may be deemed advisable. A careful follow-up of college success is made.

The services of the school psychologist are available for this group. The psychologist renders valuable aid in selecting the pupils, counseling them, administering all forms of psychological tests, making recommendations to the teachers for handling special problems, investigating special talents, and many other important services.

The teachers for these classes did not have previous experience with classes of this kind. The teachers of these classes meet regularly with the vice-principal and the psychologist to pool their experiences and discuss common problems. At these meetings matters of fundamental philosophy, method, materials, and individual pupil problems are talked over. Many of the basic principles governing the conduct of these classes have arisen out of these meetings. A free exchange of ideas, based on a democratic philosophy of supervision, has been of great assistance to the teachers in formulating a policy for the Honor-Work classes. The Rochester Board of Education has generously made it possible for those working with the problem to visit school systems in other cities where work with gifted children is going on. In fact, the whole school administration has given this experiment its wholehearted support.

The group was organized in January 1939, and although the faculty's experience with the project has been short, it is increasingly enthusiastic about the possibilities. It has been gratifying to note the progress being made by these pupils in self-reliance, study habits, personality, and cultural development.



A variety of interests in activities is provided for the pupils of the St. Francis (Kansas) Community High School. The print shop stimulates these pupils' efforts in their school work.

What Should Be the End-Products of the Secondary School

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The individuals who would give direction to our public schools are engaged in a difficult task. It is difficult because the determination of educational goals is as complex as life itself. Life in America is particularly complex because we are trying to adjust a heterogeneous population to a changing machine economy in a manner consistent with our democratic tradition. The formulation of educational theory is comparatively simple in a dictatorship. The pattern in a totalitarian state is definite. For example, there is no attempt at reconciliation of individual rights with group welfare in Germany; hence, an educational pattern is easily defined.

In this country there is no educational authority which imposes rigid uniformity. We believe this to be fortunate. No authority is able to prevent secondary schools from attempting to respond to the needs of the individual pupil or the communities they serve. The nearest approach to national standardization of objectives is found in those occasional formulations of theory by groups thought to be entitled to speak with some authority in the field of education. In attempting to define what should be the end-products of secondary education, some of the efforts to formulate objectives that have been made are described.

THE SEVEN CARDINAL PRINCIPLES

At the outset, there is no doubt but that the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, report of the Commission on the Re-organization of Secondary Education of the National Education Association made in 1918 has measurably influenced secondary education. It is or has been probably the most influential document of its type in educational history. It focused attention upon the needs of the individual pupil and upon the necessity of secondary education for all rather than the few who were preparing for college. One calls to mind particularly the increased emphasis on health and leisure time activities that followed the dissemination of this report.

The weakness in statements of objectives is usually found in the inability to combine brevity and definiteness. As an example, the fundamental process in the *Cardinal Principles* report may mean simply the three "R's." The scientific attitude is not mentioned as one of the fundamental processes. Citizenship to one individual may mean only a knowledge of historical facts. To another, citizenship may be defined largely in functional terms, that is, attitudes that shape behavior. One criticism of the *Seven Cardinal Principles* formulation of objectives is the lack of definiteness.

The Committee on Objectives of Secondary Education of the Commission on the Development of the High-School Curriculum of the Depart-

ment of Superintendence in 1928 made this statement, in their sixth year-book:

Our secondary schools for a period of approximately ten years have felt the influence of the Commission on the Re-organization of Secondary Education. The opinions of this Commission as expressed in the *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education* have a great weight of authority behind them. They are serving a useful purpose. However, in the ten years which have elapsed since their publication, our schools have been forced by conditions of our national life to make greater adjustments than were made in any previous decade. It is appropriate, therefore, to take account of present practices, and to state certain fundamental principles which supplant the *Cardinal Principles* and in some respects give a new emphasis and direction to the development of secondary education.

This committee of the Department of Superintendence re-stated the goal of education in a democracy in the words of the Commission on the Re-organization of Secondary Education as follows:

Education in a democracy, both within and without the school, should develop in each individual the knowledge, interest, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends.

The committee made the further significant statement:

Individual development and social welfare are indissolubly bound up with each other. Neither is attainable in its highest form without the other. Individual development is conditioned upon freedom and opportunity. The highest degree of social welfare is reached when fully developed individuals are integrated in such a manner as to place at the service of the group the best that each individual has to offer.

A RE-STATEMENT OF OBJECTIVES

The objectives of secondary education were defined by this committee of the Department of Superintendence as follows:

1. To promote the development of an understanding and an adequate evaluation of the self
2. To promote the development of an understanding and an appreciation of the world of nature
3. To promote the development of an understanding and an appreciation of organized society
4. To promote the development of an appreciation of the force of law and of love that is operating universally

"The individual self, nature, society, and God, these four, and in particular the adjustment which the individual must make—constitute the objectives of education." The Committee attempted to show the part which secondary education should take in helping youth to reach higher limits of achievement.

The committee concluded its discussion of the philosophy of secondary education by stating that it hoped that its report might be useful for a time. It also stated that there could be no finality in a statement of objectives because, insofar as it could see, there could be no final philosophy, since society is not static, and since society as it changes makes new demands upon the schools. It is doubtful that the influence of this report

has been comparable to the *Seven Cardinal Principles* report.

In another ten years a new statement of objectives has been formulated by an authoritative group, The Educational Policies Commission of the American Association of School Administrators and the National Education Association. This statement is entitled, *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy*. It must be said that leaders of the National Education Association at least attempt to re-direct education in keeping with social change.

At the outset, the Educational Policies Commission presents a discussion of the nature and sources of educational objectives. It is the contention of the commission that educational objectives depend on a scale of values, that they are rooted in the life of our people, and are a form of social policy. "Objectives are essentially a statement of preferences, choices, and values. The purposes of school are not 'discovered' as a prospector strikes a gold mine. They evolve; they reflect and interact with the purposes which permeate the life of the people," according to the Commission. Democracy is defined as the social policy of America.

THE EDUCATIONAL POLICIES COMMISSION REPORTS

The report contains significant statements pertaining to the meaning of democracy as a social policy. Democracy is a way of life in which certain principles stand out in bold relief. Some of these principles are: Members of a democratic society are interested not only in individual welfare but general welfare, The individual is placed above institutions, Democratic behavior accords to every individual civil liberty, Democratic governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed, Appeal to reason and not to force is the democratic method of settling disputes, Democracy prizes the attainment of human happiness as an evidence of effective social living.

The struggle in America to free the schools from sectarian control is traced and the impact of technology on our social arrangements is pointed out. It is said in the report that our forefathers largely because of applied science were nearer to the age of Confucius than we are to them. In view of the role schools are playing in the totalitarian states, the *first professional responsibility* of educational administrators and teachers is the study of democracy, declare the authors of the report.

There is more emphasis on democracy in this report than in the *Cardinal Principles* report. Allowing for the difference in the number of words in the two reports, the word democracy or democratic is used approximately twice as many times in *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* report as in *The Seven Cardinal Principles* report. It is evident that in the thinking of many individuals democracy was more seriously threatened in 1938 than in 1918. Happenings since 1938 do not minimize the importance of the problem of making democracy safe even for a portion of the world. May it be repeated that the later report contains the statement that the first professional responsibility of educational

administrators and teachers is the study of democracy. The authors of the report probably mean indoctrination in behalf of democracy rather than the mere study of it.

SELF-REALIZATION

In *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* report the objectives of education are divided into four groups; namely, Objectives of *Self-Realization*, Objectives of *Human Relationship*, Objectives of *Economic Efficiency*, and Objectives of *Civic Responsibility*. The forty-five objectives focus on the individual himself, his relationships to others in home and community, the production and consumption of material wealth, and citizenship activities.

If the objectives of the first group, *Self-Realization*, are achieved, the individual, according to the phraseology of the report, has an appetite for learning, speaks the English language clearly, reads efficiently, writes effectively, solves his mathematical problems, is skilled in listening and observing, understands and applies individually and socially the basic facts concerning health and disease, is a spectator and participant in recreational activities, has mental resources for the worthy use of leisure, appreciates beauty, and directs intelligently his own life.

The attention of the reader is directed to a pamphlet entitled *Purposes of Education* issued by the Educational Policies Commission as a reprint from the National Parent-Teacher magazine. Special emphasis is given to one of these articles, *Education for Realization* by George D. Stoddard. This article concludes with the statement that we should have in any consideration of the individual "a concept of character, of ethical and spiritual qualities." This objective is not explicitly mentioned among the objectives of *Self-Realization* in the basic report.

HUMAN RELATIONSHIP

If the objectives of the second group, *Human Relationships*, are realized, the individual puts human welfare at the top of his scale of values, enjoys a rich and varied social life, works and plays with the others, observes good manners, appreciates the family as a basic social unit in our life, conserves family ideals, is skilled in homemaking, and maintains democratic family relationships. A sound interpretation of these two groups of objectives is that neither can be isolated from the other except for the purpose of analysis in order to clarify our thinking. *Self-Realization* is achieved through human relationships and satisfactory human relationships exist because of self-realization. The individual and the groups are really part of the same entity. Each supplements the other.

The authors of the report are to be commended for their emphasis on the family as a basic social unit. The burden of the school has been increased because of the weakening of the family influence on youth during the recent decades. The school can partially insure the likelihood of performing its own task by providing every possible means of strengthening the influence of the family. No sociologist to date has suggested a good substitute for the home as an institution for rearing children properly.

ECONOMIC EFFICIENCY

If the objectives of the third group, *Economic Efficiency*, are realized, the individual is a producer who knows the satisfaction of good workmanship, understands the requirements and opportunities of various vocations, has selected his occupation, succeeds in his chosen vocation, improves his efficiency, and appreciates the social value of his work. The individual is a consumer who plans the economics of his own life, develops standards for intelligent buying and other expenditures, and takes appropriate measures to safeguard his own interests.

Again we are reminded of the inter-relatedness of all of these objectives. Vocational and economic competence cannot be divorced from individual and social competence. Edwin A. Lee has well said that we cannot separate our work from our culture. Our society will disappear from the face of the earth when too many of its members become economic leaders. Our leaders who are realistic would not remove the economic objectives and the consequent activities from the educational program.

It is not necessary to elaborate on the objectives of *Self-Realization*, *Human Relationships*, and *Civic Responsibility* on the part of our youth when vocational opportunity and adjustment are lacking. Life is more than meat but there is no life without meat. The Maryland youth voted economic security their chief problem. There are some evidences of need for the re-organization of the vocational aspect of the secondary school, especially as it applies to the extent of specialization and the years of specialization. Vocational guidance both in the narrow and the broad sense is a major problem in the secondary school. The number of secondary schools that assume any responsibility for vocational guidance after graduation is negligible.

CIVIC RESPONSIBILITY

If the objectives of the fourth group, *Civic Responsibility*, are achieved, the individual is sensitive to the disparities of human circumstances, acts to correct unsatisfactory differences, seeks to understand social structure and processes, has defenses against propaganda, respects honest differences of opinion, has regard for the nation's resources, measures scientific advance by its contribution to the general welfare, is a co-operating member of the world community, respects the law, is economically literate, accepts his civic duties, and acts upon an unswerving loyalty to democratic ideals.

If one should attempt to add to this excellent enumeration of objectives of *Civic Responsibility*, he should mention more emphasis on the study of government. The clamor of more governmental services is not accompanied by any increased understanding of government, especially the taxation aspect of government. The persistent demands for pensions of all sorts is a serious threat to adequate support of schools. Our educational system has never faced such severe competition for its share of the tax dollar as it is now facing. Simultaneously with the study of the financial support of all governmental activities, free education as the foundation stone of democratic

government must be studied in the classrooms of every secondary school in the land. The secondary schools must teach that the financial responsibilities of the citizen for government is as significant as the services that government renders.

These forty-five objectives of the four groups represent an excellent definition of what should be the end-products of secondary education. This report of the Educational Policies Commission has been favorably received by school administrators and teachers. It will undoubtedly modify educational procedure.

THE IMPLEMENTATION COMMISSION REPORTS

The Implementation Commission of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association issued a bulletin entitled *That All May Learn*. This deals largely with the educationally neglected pupil. Too large a percentage of the secondary-school population falls in this group. It is a well-known fact that only twenty per cent of our secondary-school graduates go to college. In some secondary schools many pupils are the educationally neglected and in the great majority of our secondary schools all of the pupils are the educationally neglected. It is interesting to note what this Commission records as the objectives of secondary education. They are *vocational adjustment, satisfactory personal adjustment within family and community, participation in recreational activities and health*. There is substantial agreement between the objectives of *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* report and the Implementation Commission of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals' report.

A summary of all our stated objectives of education may be found on the frontispice of *Principles of Education*, by Chapman and Counts. It is the story of a schoolmaster of other days facing modern youth with vital needs. One question is if it is not a good picture of the out-moded school attempting to help modern youth get on:

"Greeting his pupils, the master asked: 'What would you learn of me?' and the reply came: 'How shall we care for our bodies? How shall we rear our children? How shall we work together? How shall we live with our fellow men? How shall we play? For what ends shall we live?' The teacher pondered these words, and sorrow was in his heart, for his own learning touched not these things."

ACHIEVING THE OBJECTIVES

In order to insure to a greater degree than obtains at present the end-products of secondary education just presented, five proposals are submitted in a brief manner:

1. The first proposal is *psychological*. Secondary education today requires a more comprehensive theory of learning than has heretofore found acceptance in school practices. In the past, one phase of growth has been emphasized to the neglect of others, largely because of an out-moded and

narrow concept of growth. The imparting of knowledge and the so-called "training of the mind" concept has dominated the secondary school at the expense of training the adolescent as a unitary whole. Organismic psychology which is becoming more and more widely accepted holds that intellectual activity cannot be divorced from the emotional and social life of the individual. This is not to minimize intelligence as a necessary factor in the complex life of today. Rather it is to emphasize that behavior is influenced significantly by other elements of personality which must not be overlooked in the secondary-school program.

Another psychological point of view that should be mentioned is that we learn what we live. In other words, the individual does not really learn anything until he lives it. It is useless to discuss education as a defense of democracy, for example, unless our education truly engenders democratic living. Is it any wonder that so many of our young people upon leaving school feel that their instruction, which was so remote from everyday life, is useless? Basic to improvement in the secondary school is the fact that we must be concerned with the whole adolescent and that learning in the true sense is living in a different manner.

2. The second proposal is *administrative*. Employment statistics reveal that too large a percentage of our secondary-school graduates and youths who leave school before graduation are unable to secure jobs. Reference was made previously to John Chamberlain's article: *Our Jobless Youth: A Warning* in the October 1939 *Survey Graphic*. The following quotation from this article applies: "... out-of-school youth has the highest unemployment of any age level in the country."

It would seem that in view of this one social fact alone the public school should include fourteen years of training instead of twelve in its program. This proposal is supported by the President's Advisory Committee, on Education and other authoritative groups as well as many individual leaders in education. The proposal, however, is not that two years of college work be added to the secondary school as has been done in too many cases. This extension of the secondary education should be made in terms of the more vital needs of the great majority of young people rather than in terms of two years of traditional academic-college training.

3. The third proposal is *curricular*. The entire instructional program should be re-organized around the problems of youth. These problems are *self-realization*, *social competence*, and *economic efficiency*. If the secondary school grapples with the youth problems intelligently, the traits of civic responsibility which were found lacking in too many secondary-school youth by the New York Regents' Inquiry staff will be developed. The core of the curriculum should be focused upon actual youth needs and problems.

Since only about twenty per cent of the secondary-school graduates go to college, sufficient electives can be provided for this group. Some colleges at the present time do not specify entrance requirements in terms of subject-matter as formerly. This trend will probably grow.

The college is not the obstacle in the path of secondary-school reorganization that many individuals would have us believe. The regional accrediting agency is not in the way of desirable change. The chief obstacle is leadership in the secondary-school field and the teacher-education institutions.

4. The fourth proposal is one of *teacher personnel*. Both the Educational Policies Commission's *Purposes of Education*, and the New York Regents' Inquiry report emphasize the necessity of improving teacher personnel in the secondary schools. The former report states that "better status and better qualifications for teachers must be brought about simultaneously and promptly." The latter insists that "New York wants good teachers because it knows that the classroom teacher is the heart of the school."

Our secondary schools need more teachers. The pupil-teacher ratio generally is too high for the most desirable results. Our secondary schools need teachers who are not subject-matter minded in order that they may focus their attention upon youth. Our secondary schools need teachers of a broader cultural background, better professional training, and of a stronger type of personality in order to lead the sophisticated youth of today. Higher certification standards are not the solution alone. Better working conditions and more compensation are the two most effective means of attracting superior personalities to the teaching profession at all levels.

5. The fifth and last proposal pertains to *guidance*. It is generally accepted that few secondary schools have a satisfactory plan for guidance and that fewer have the personnel sufficient in number, competence, training, and zeal to carry out a satisfactory guidance program. By this it is understood that a comprehensive guidance beginning with adequate records and extending to social and economic adjustment is one of the end-products of secondary education. By this are meant guidance functionaries who are human and who really study their pupils as individuals and give assistance where needed. The placement bureau should have an important part in the guidance system. The follow-up procedures of youth who have left school because of graduation or otherwise should be planned and carried out in co-operation with employers of youth. Never has guidance of youth by the secondary school been so much needed as it is today.

The Secondary School as a Research Laboratory

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Extremely fruitful are the possibilities for the development of a science of education. At present, however, education is a hybrid, not a functional synthesis, deriving nutriment, inspiration, and aid from diversely assorted sciences: biology, psychology, psychiatry, sociology, statistics, mental hygiene. Fundamentally the scientific method remains, and if education is to make any notable progress that method must suggest the line of procedure, the point of attack. For the experimental method is applicable to any situation, however complex, whether it be sociable or physical in nature.

Those situations in which single factors cannot be isolated for quantitative determination make the task of the investigator exceedingly difficult. He cannot reduce his results to statistical tabulations; he cannot measure with exactitude. But the lack of precise quantitative measurement does not mean complete hopelessness, it does not imply the resigned adoption of a *laissez-faire* policy. For every system set up, every curriculum put into practice, every school plant works according to some formula, some conception of education, some comprehensive philosophy. The task of experimentalism in education is to determine which methods are more feasible, more fruitful, and more desirable in terms of outcomes. In this way practice would fructify theory, and theory in turn would stimulate and advance practice. We should then approximate the goal, basic to the philosophy of experimentalism, of the unity of theory and practice.

There is nothing either mysterious or magical about experimentalism. It finds its point of departure and its culmination in experience. Concrete experience provides the problem, the felt need, the incentive; by means of controlled experiments with experience ideas are formed, provisional truths achieved. It is in the course of interacting with his environment that man experiences, suffers, and establishes hypotheses and conclusions, analyses and interpretations, which will guide him in confronting future experiences.

What the experimentalist assumes leads naturally to an interest in education. All life is essentially an educative process: a process of growth through learning from experience. Hence if the schools attempt to function effectively, they should aim to channel and systematize this tendency to make learning from experience maximally potent. In short, experimentalism is a method of inquiry, a way of testing ideas and arriving at provisional beliefs. If we accept the method and adopt it in practice, we cannot suffer disillusionment. To give up cherished beliefs, to revise established truths, to welcome disturbing heresies and innovations, to anticipate reforms: this will not be hard for the experimentalist in education to encompass. For his primary concern is not so much with the truth as with the method of reaching the truth. Whatever truth he embraces is held as an hypothesis to be modified and revised in the light of increasing knowledge.

THE SCIENCE OF EDUCATION AND THE CLASSROOM TEACHER

If educational science is to become a reality, it cannot be embalmed in books or preserved aseptically in laboratories; it must come to life in the minds, attitudes, and actions of the million men and women in this country engaged in teaching. Unless there is this transfer, this process of assimilation, the results, however scientific and impressive, do not constitute educational science. For it is educational practice which furnishes the foundation material for the problems of scientific inquiry in education. Whatever value research is to have must appear in these educational practices.

Professor John Dewey was one of the few writers on education who perceived the constructive possibilities of enlisting classroom teachers in the essential work of research. "It seems to me that the contributions that might come from *classroom* teachers are a comparatively neglected field, or, to change the metaphor, an almost unworked mine."¹ Professor Dewey does not deny that obstacles may stand in the way, that teachers may prove incompetent to undertake work of this kind. But the objection, he argues warmly, proves too much, "so much so that it is almost fatal to the idea of a workable scientific content in education. For these teachers are the ones in direct contact with pupils and hence the ones through whom the results of scientific findings finally reach students."² It is not lack of ability but lack of opportunity that has prevented teachers from making the rich contribution to educational research that they are capable of making.

CENTRAL THESIS

It is the thesis of this article that every secondary school is a strategically situated center for research activities in education. No teacher can hope to do full justice to his classes unless he is willing to explore, to experiment. Not only is every school a vital center for research but each classroom is a living laboratory. Each new lesson involves a new setting, a new situation. There is the method to be employed; there are the pupils who must be motivated, interested, and taught; there are educational purposes to fulfill; there are results to be measured. Which is the shortest distance between these two points: the objectives set forth by the teacher and those proposed and adopted and achieved by the pupils? What methods in a given class will produce the best results? How are these results integrated with those achieved in other classrooms and in the school as a whole?

By encouraging teachers within a school to become experimentalists, it is not meant that they will be required to scour their heads for new and original ideas. There is always the danger that freakish and intrinsically worthless projects will be attempted, but this can be easily eliminated. The principal, who will still be charged with the final responsibility of administering the school, cannot, of course, be expected to act upon each suggestion made. A committee selected by the faculty, a committee of forward-looking and professionally alert teachers, would be entrusted with the duty of de-

¹Dewey, John, *The Sources of a Science of Education*. New York: Liveright Pub. Corp., 386-4th Ave., 1939, p. 46.

²*Id.*, p. 47.

termining the merit of suggested experimental projects within a given school. They would discourage or reject outright those projects which either gave no promise of positive results or which did not fit in with the general program of the school. The purpose of research in the secondary school is not research as an end-in-itself.

ADVANTAGES OF RESEARCH IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Those teachers who are not moved to experiment by the spirit of research need not do so. There will be no external compulsion. But the contagion of new ideas and attitudes will prove for many well nigh irresistible. Doubt, once it enters the citadel of the mind, cannot be exorcised. Teachers may find in time that the good old ways, the values they accepted so confidently in the past, the methods they were taught in college, do not apply satisfactorily to a given educational and social context. Gradually they will be led to see, test, and judge for themselves.

Another advantage, a decided advantage, of the experimental method when applied to the entire school is that it promotes a genuine co-operative spirit among the teachers. Once teachers are given a stake in the work of research they will take a personal interest in the procedure and a collective pride in the results achieved. To familiarize the faculty with what is going on and in order to agree upon common objectives, the principal will call a number of teachers' meetings, some of which will be attended by small groups, while others will be attended by the entire faculty. At these meetings, chosen committee members or individual teachers can give reports on their findings.

When these findings prove of interest and value, when they constitute a contribution to educational knowledge, it might be desirable to publish a school paper. It need not be an imposing affair, if budgetary economies are called for, but it will serve a highly useful purpose in giving credit where credit is due and in co-ordinating experimental activities in the school. It will enable teachers to see the goal that is being pursued in spite of many obstacles and discouragements, the pattern of unity in variety, the philosophy of education that is guiding the administration of the school.

In addition, whenever an important and distinctively original article has been published in the school paper, it should later be reprinted in full or abstracted for the periodical published by the city system as a whole.^a In this way, both the teachers and the school would receive a generous degree of recognition.

Another benefit to be derived from the application of experimental research to educational problems in the schools, is that it would tend in the long run to break down departmental barriers. There is nothing more efficacious in destroying the provincialism of subject-centered teachers than working on committees with members from other departments. For perhaps

^aSee the periodical, *High Points*, issued by the New York City Board of Education, an admirable organ of professional opinion, which devotes, as it should, a large proportion of space to the presentation of experimental procedures and results.

the first time teachers find their favorite assumptions and cherished beliefs roundly disputed. They are placed under the necessity of defending points of view which they had complacently taken for granted. Under critical scrutiny these points of view which they had complacently taken for granted will often not stand the test, and the teachers are then compelled to revise their thinking.

In the beginning, however, it will be found most economical to follow the departmentalized structure in allocating areas of research. It is sound practice to utilize to the utmost the institutional facilities already established. The point of chief significance, however, is that there is no phase of secondary education, no matter how administered, which does not lend itself to experimental investigation. Many schools, for instance, have found it necessary to appoint various teachers to supervise the matter of attendance. There is considerable waste and loss when pupils are kept out of school. What are the varied reasons for absence within a given community? Which are remediable? What can be done? But to discover what had best be done, the administrator must first make an intensive study of local conditions. He must know what kind of parents these children have, their socio-economic status, their cultural and religious background. Also vital is the matter of getting to know the pupils themselves. Scholastic records have proved notoriously inadequate since they fail to give a significant picture of the total personality. Hence the need, in addition to the community survey, for the case study method, for building cumulative personality records, for studying the psychology of adolescent behavior in and out of school. In this work, the aid of a consultant psychologist would prove highly useful.

Educational research carried on by the personnel would have the final advantage of breaking up the departmentalization of research activities. Because educational science is so vast in its range and so complex in its implications, it has been divided into a number of narrow sectors for separate investigation by specialists: remedial reading, arithmetic, statistics, occupational guidance, plant facilities, teaching methods, systems of taxation, and so on. The result is that the mills of educational research are grinding out facts, discoveries, statistics, and conclusions in relation to administration, supervision, the curriculum, discipline, guidance, the psychology of the learning process, the dependency load, teacher training, and what not. There are few who at present are capable of reducing this diversity to unity, of imposing order upon this welter of material.⁴ We cannot see the wood for the trees. Research within the schools might help to redress the balance. For investigations would spring from concrete educational problems, and these problems could not long be studied in isolation. Even if, for the purposes of research, the problem were conveniently broken up into different parts, in the end it would have to be brought into relation with the educational practices of the school if the experimental findings are to prove significant

⁴For a spirited attack on the triviality and ineptitude of educational research produced under the aegis of teachers colleges, see Flexner, Abraham, *Universities: American, English, German*. New York and London, Oxford University Press, 114-5th Ave., 1930.

and useful. We cannot study the psychology of the learning process or the technique of guidance apart from the personality of the pupil.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF OBSTACLES

By vastly extending the range of educational research, as suggested above, what do we hope to gain? There is no magic in the word "research" that yields rich and immediate dividends. We shall have to accept the fact that many teachers are neither capable nor willing to undertake educational research. Their ideal is to be undisturbed, to continue doing what they have been doing all along. They have no patience with new-fangled notions. Then, too, even if the great majority of teachers enthusiastically co-operated in research, no sure-fire and original results would thereby be ensured. But the risk is well worth taking. Certainly the assumptions and the practices we now take for granted are less reliable than the conclusions we could arrive at by collective collaboration in research: research which is both verification and advance. It is not an easy task; the fruit may take long to grow; the gains may not be immediately assessable, but if research does one thing well, if it undermines our frozen, institutional way of looking at the world and at life, then it amply justifies itself. Not that research can hope or should strive to solve all problems. That utopian dream has gone with the wind. We are now more sober, more modest in our aims and expectations. For we realize that no two observations, no two experiments, particularly in education, are ever quite the same. What we get is a statistical average, a trend, but even this is sufficiently helpful as a guide, "If a topic can be investigated by the experimental method there is no excuse except that of less effort and expense for using another method. The field for experimental research is as broad as it can operate in. . ."

If teachers have been disinclined to welcome progressive ideas or modern practices, and uninterested in carrying on research or in testing the research findings of others, the fault is to be attributed in part to administrative negligence. Teachers were not—and in many schools still are not—afforded much leeway in employing methods of instruction or in the determination of curriculum content. They were required to obey orders, to follow the established course of study. Now all that is being slowly changed. The reservoir of energy and originality in the vast body of teachers is being tapped, and administrators are seriously concerned now to help teachers grow professionally. They attempt to interest teachers in new types of research dealing with instructional problems.

THE CONTRIBUTION OF TEACHERS

This is not to deny that teachers have begun to play a more vital and influential role in educational research. More and more men are rising up from the ranks and are achieving recognition by virtue of their original contributions. They are invited to attend conferences and state and national conventions. Their work appears in educational periodicals, though not as often

³Kelley, Truman Lee. *Scientific Method*. New York, Macmillan 1932. p. 24.

as it should. They collaborate in the writing of books; they co-operate in carrying out various noteworthy projects of research. But if we grant all this, the fact still remains that these teachers are in a decidedly small minority. They are the exceptions rather than the rule. The vast majority of teachers are without great vision, conscientious but unprogressive, high-minded but incurably dogmatic. These are the facts of the educational situation that must be realistically faced.

THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

If the secondary school is to become an institution of research, adapting itself progressively to changed conditions, then the leadership will have to be assumed by the principal. His is the responsibility for encouraging, initiating, and supervising necessary and fruitful experiments in order to improve the end-process of instruction. Consequently a new type of person will be required for this position, not only an efficient administrator but a person who, in addition to possessing all those qualities of leadership, energy, tact, and understanding which is now expected, is also endowed with large vision, deep knowledge, and a thorough comprehension of the theoretical and practical implications, as applied to education, of the scientific method. This person should be of broad culture and ability and interest in research.

It is not necessary, though desirable, that he shall himself on occasion participate in the work of research. For in his own capacity as administrator he is constantly faced with problems for which there is no ready-made solution; problems which challenge his competence, his insight and understanding. What better way is there of meeting these problems than by the method of experimental investigation. In these investigations, once the school is functionally established as a research laboratory, the principal will no longer be on his own; he will not work in isolation. Problems of administration, since they intimately affect the personnel, will also concern the rank and file of teachers who, once they understand the nature of the problem confronting them, will gladly make whatever contribution they are capable of making.

The burden of research will naturally be carried—in the beginning at least—by the more resourceful and progressive members of the teaching staff. The tendency to look at every problem that arises from a scientific point of view, will gradually eliminate the failing, so common among teachers, of complaining and backbiting. Each one will have a task to perform, a share in a common educational undertaking. There will be other rewards: recognition for applying the experimental method, the publication of result, opportunities for demonstration, the chance for personal and professional growth, and finally, the satisfaction that comes from work well done. Is it not true that we are as a rule more interested in the outcome of experiments which we conduct than in the results of teaching according to time-honored, established methods? There is an element of adventure, of the unpredictable. Intellectual curiosity is actively engaged. There is the dynamic desire to improve instruction by adapting it to individual needs. There is

also the stimulation that springs from working both in co-operation and in friendly competition with one's colleagues. This will be one test of alertness and professional competence, just as in the colleges productivity in research is a test of professional growth. Whatever advantages will accrue from the utilization of the experimental method, one thing is certain, one effect it will have: it will bring home to teachers the changing, problematic, challenging character of the environment and of the educative process.

THE ADMINISTRATION OF RESEARCH

What are the conspicuous differences in organization and administration between a traditional school of the present time and one that would be established under the new dispensation? As has already been pointed out, the differences would not be so startling as one perhaps imagines, for the simple reason that no school, however administered, can long continue to function satisfactorily without in some measure applying experimental methods. These methods, it is true, may be fumbling, hit-or-miss, a matter chiefly of habit, tradition, routine, but the point to be remembered is that some procedures of organization and administration work while others clearly fail to do so, and that some degree of adjustment and adaptation is generally called for. When things run smoothly, the administrator professes to be satisfied. It is only when he encounters the resistance of failure that he is confronted with a problem. What elements in the situation, he must ask himself, are unprecedented, unaccounted for? What changes must be made to solve this problem?

Under the new experimental set-up, administration would be more concerned with preventive hygiene than with finding drugs and palliatives after acute symptoms of illness had manifested themselves. Indeed, a better concept than that of preventive hygiene would be creative administration, for that is what the experimental method of inquiry essentially connotes. It is a fusion of the known and the unknown, the problematic and the determinate, and this fusion introduces a new dimension, a new frame of knowledge.

The assumption so often held that educational research must concern itself chiefly if not exclusively with quantitative techniques and tabulations, that it is preeminently a statistical science, must be put on the shelf. The experimental method of inquiry, it cannot too often be repeated, applies to every area of human life, every province of human and social activity. Whenever an unsolved problem arises, whenever doubt appears, then the experimental method can and should be applied. The problem may not be solved; our instruments of observation and exploration may prove faulty or inadequate for gaining this new insight. This does not, however, mean that we must surrender ourselves to obscurantism. We go as far as we can, and then wait for the sappers and miners, the chemists and physicists, the psychologists, physiologists, bacteriologists, and sociologists to bring up their specialized weapons and get to work. As soon as society experiences a paramount need, it eventually devises ways of satisfying it. That tendency has been

manifest in the field of invention, metallurgy, mining, warfare, colloidal chemistry. It will become evident also in the field of educational science.

Let us assume that the experimental philosophy of education has been approved and adopted as a worthy one. Steps are forthwith taken to apply it to the business of education. What changes would take place? What reforms would be instituted? How would these affect the role of the principal, the teaching staff, the pupils, the community at large? The experimental method is based upon an attitude of objective, thoroughgoing inquiry. Nothing is sacred, closed, settled. A method validates itself by the way it works. Taking these premises as our point of departure, let us observe what happens when the schools set out bravely to discover the changes that should be introduced.

Before experimentation actually begins, the principal should first make certain that the experimental outlook has been whole-heartedly accepted and thoroughly understood by the members of the faculty. Fixed boundary lines must be obliterated, the tyranny of the conventional undermined. Teachers can exercise their mind by training in what Mr. Kenneth Burke⁹ calls "perspective through incongruity." They will proceed by asking disconcerting, heretical questions. These questions will not be as far-fetched and fantastic as may at first sight appear. One's power of framing questions is limited by his knowledge, his experience, his insight into a given situation. Teachers might be encouraged to give expression to iconoclastic hypotheses: What would happen, for example, if the departmental structure were scrapped? What would happen if a new type of school were erected which, instead of being equipped with classrooms, would be a huge library and laboratory, with facilities for every type of investigation, every kind of useful activity and for teaching every kind of desirable skill? Again, what would happen if the prevalent method of having the teacher ask questions were abolished? Suppose that, instead, pupils were trained in the art of discovering their own needs? Suppose they were deliberately encouraged to exchange their ideas, to share their skills, to help one another in all common educational concerns? Would that facilitate or retard the educative process? Suppose, once more, that the incentives which the schools now exploit so consistently were abandoned as inadequate and perhaps even harmful? Suppose they were replaced by more dynamic, self-integrated motives? Suppose—suppose—suppose. . .

Before this could be successfully consummated, a great deal of inertia and resistance would have to be overcome. The campaign for gaining converts to the new idea would have to be supported by a thorough knowledge of the fundamental values which sustain and guide the teacher. Before stating our aims, we must attempt to determine to what extent these aims are desirable and justified. When we stress means to the exclusion of interest in the ends for which they are presumably designed, we are making a serious and costly error. We are confusing our body of values.

Each type of teacher would be permitted to undertake a research

⁹Burke, Kenneth, *Permanence and Change*, New York, New Republic, Inc., 40 E. 49th St., 1935.

project in harmony with his dominant interest, his primary values. The traditionalist will instantly rise to object that to follow this policy logically would result in administrative anarchy. How could this possibly be applied efficiently to a system of mass education? (Parenthetically it may be observed that the query itself introduces a problem for experimental inquiry. The doubt is legitimate; the query is a challenge. How shall we go about proving if anything is possible if not by trying it under a method of controlled experimentation? Does not the objection assume, as a norm, that mass education is inevitable, an evil that must be accepted? Does it not also work on the premise that the school is incapable of initiating change, that it must follow instead of lead?) Experimentation takes place within a frame of reference. There is a felt need and then action is taken to satisfy it. That is true of the chemical laboratory as well as of the secondary school.

The first task then is one of determining what needs are indigenous to the population of a school. There are many ways of accomplishing this objective, one of the best being the community survey. Each school, whether it acknowledges the fact or not, is essentially a community school. Once these local needs have been ascertained, the road is clear for the work of educational research within the school. The objectives are now fairly evident; the problem is to devise those administrative functions, agencies, and methods which will yield the best results, which will achieve the agreed-upon objectives.

THE COUNCIL OF RESEARCH

In order to avoid wasteful effort in investigating problems and conditions which do not bear directly upon these determined objectives, it will be necessary to establish within each secondary school a council of research. Democratically chosen by the faculty, the council of research will consist of a group of competent and interested teachers. Where the funds are available, it would not be amiss if a specialist in research were appointed as a consultant. The function of the council would be to pass upon suggested projects for research. In deciding these problems, the members of the council would soon discover that they must first decide upon a comprehensive philosophy of education for the school, what their objectives should be, and how the work of the school should be co-ordinated and unified in the pursuance of a common, worthy aim. It will also be their duty to designate certain classes as experimental and at the same time to safeguard pupils against experiments which do not contribute anything to their educational well being.

It may be argued that only a very small percentage of teachers is at present capable of undertaking such an ambitious plan of research. The argument, however, strikes a defeatist note. One might ask with equal appropriateness: How many teachers are capable of "teaching"? Our initial premise was that each school is a laboratory, each lesson an experiment. If the teacher is unwilling or unable to experiment, he is to that extent an inefficient and undesirable teacher. For he is constantly faced with the need of adjusting instructional material to individual capacity, to satisfy the per-

sonal needs of pupils, to try new and more effective ways of motivating learning. In doing so, he is engaged in the work of experimentation. Whether he experiments with the group method of instruction or whether he adheres to the traditional method of questions and answers, whether he encourages individual learning or holds recitations on the prescribed textbook, whether he attempts to utilize the varied and rich resources of the community or sticks pedantically to the assigned course of study, whether he ties up his work with the outside interests and other learning and life activities of the adolescent or teaches his subject in proud and pure isolation—he is still following a method that was originally suggested, tested, and confirmed by experimental methods.

We need not take such a discouraged view of the potentialities of the teaching force. Once they are made aware of a need, they will endeavor to satisfy it. It may take considerable time before the experimental philosophy becomes fully-established, becomes an integral part of their mental furniture, but there can be no question that ultimately it will establish itself. Just as Boards of Education now require courses in the history of education and methods of teaching and educational psychology before a teacher can be properly certificated, so it is not beyond the bounds of possibility that later they will awaken to the value of requiring that teachers, before beginning service, should demonstrate their ability to use the experimental method in all the varied, complex, and exacting concerns of education.

This is far from implying that every teacher now in service is competent to undertake fundamental research. We have no wish to overestimate their capacity, interest, or willingness, but an initial skepticism springing from wide experience and observation of teachers in action should not blind us to the enormous potentialities inherent in teacher-research. It is only by the critical handling of school problems that teachers can be said actually to teach. If teachers are to grow, if teaching is to be progressive, in short, if it is to be a profession in the real sense of the word, then teachers will have to develop at first-hand a knowledge and understanding of the scientific method and its bearing on education.

Unifying the Guidance Program

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According to a report of the field committee of the Co-operative Study of Secondary Schools Standards, guidance in most schools is either wholly lacking or quite inadequate. But the principle of guidance has been associated with all modern movements in education, and some claim that the present movement toward more effective guidance is the most outstanding movement in secondary education.

Let us discuss guidance as to its classifications, its nature, its purposes, its need, its assumptions, its principles, its philosophy, its meaning, its major fields, its agencies, and its organizations.

All guidance may be classified as educational. But for convenience of study it can be subdivided into the following types: vocational, educational, social, health, and personal. Of course it is impossible to carry on one type of guidance without reference or contribution to one or more of the others.

By its nature guidance is associated with the individual and his problems. It is something that cannot be separated from the general life of the school. Some form of guidance is the duty of every teacher in the system. It is not something that concerns only a part of the individual, nor does it deal merely with a part of his life. Vocational guidance is an important part of guidance, but it should not occupy the entire stage. Many problems are not confined to vocations, and need not be interpreted in terms of vocations. However, guidance must become progressively more specialized as the pupil matures. In the elementary grades, it is largely educational; in the junior high school, it is exploratory; and in the senior high school, it takes a vocational direction. But it is always a continuous process, ending only when the individual is well established in a suitable occupation.

It is the purpose of guidance to give pupils information regarding schools, occupations, and their own abilities, and to give them assistance in making wise choices, adjustments, and interpretations in connection with critical situations in their lives. It is to give opportunities for the development of new experiences and explorations.

Guidance is needed to prevent waste in production and in human life. A large number of secondary-school pupils are graduated with little or no plan for the future, with no decision as to the various fields of work, and with little knowledge of the opportunities for further training. The time comes when they jump at the first job that comes along. At the present the gulf is too wide between education and the practical affairs of life. Young people wander blindly for several years after they leave school before they can find what they can and want to do. The

result is confusion, discouragement, and waste. They should learn about occupational opportunities and should discover their own abilities while in school. The transition between education and employment should be gradual.

BASIC ASSUMPTIONS OF GUIDANCE

The basic assumptions of guidance are: (1) Individuals differ as to their interests and abilities. (2) Many decisions cannot be made successfully without assistance. (3) The schools are in a position to give the needed assistance.

We need to follow a few principles with respect to guidance. Some forms of guidance require the assistance of specialists. However, in general, it must be a matter of co-operation in which all the forces of the school are utilized and co-ordinated, each contributing its part and performing its peculiar functions. Although every part of the school should be concerned with guidance, it should not be so broad as to be meaningless.

There are three philosophies with respect to guidance. One considers the guidance person as a specialist working behind closed doors, coming forth only occasionally to make impressions and perhaps mystifying announcements. Another considers the guidance person as a sympathetic personal leader who is able to gain the confidence of the pupils. The third makes use of both the specialist and the personal leader.

The term guidance is subject to many interpretations. It may be defined as the process of acquainting the individual with various ways in which he may discover and use his natural endowments so that he may live and make a living to the best advantage to himself and to society. This definition is based upon the doctrine of individual differences and freedom of choice. It recognizes both general and vocational education.

The field of guidance may be divided into six comprehensive areas. They are (1) occupational information, (2) cumulative record, (3) counseling, (4) exploration of training opportunities, (5) placement, and (6) follow up.

Occupational information refers to those trends, opportunities, and facts pertinent to local and national conditions. If intelligent choices of occupations are to be made, facts for many vocations must be presented completely and without prejudice. No distinction in honor or value should be made among the occupations. To give accurate information, one needs to have specialized knowledge. There are 557 major occupations with 25,000 subdivisions listed by name. Yet studies of occupational preferences of secondary-school pupils show that 64 per cent of boys' choices are limited to three occupations. It is reported that 60 per cent of discharges from industry are caused not from lack of skill or technical knowledge but from lack of right attitudes and the understanding of fundamental relationships. Therefore it is the responsibility of the school not only to give information but also to develop attitudes which meet the demands of social and economic life.

TECHNIQUES FOR GUIDANCE

By cumulative record is meant an array of facts about an individual which distinguishes him as an individual from others. It should include a wide range of such factors as physical development, health, mental traits, educational achievements, social background, interests, and special talents. These facts must be collected and organized in such a way that they can be efficiently used. To give an accurate picture the record should show many traits over a period of years. The responsibility of keeping and interpreting the records of each individual for a span of at least three years should rest with one person. The folder type of record is growing in popularity. The record should be kept in the school that the pupil is attending. It should be easily accessible to those who use it. It should be remembered that records are an aid to, and not a substitute for, a personal knowledge and understanding of the pupil by the counselor.

Counseling implies a personal and confidential relationship between the individual pupil and the counselor. Its purpose is to assist the individual in recognizing and solving his personal problems. Briefly, counseling is an activity by means of which all the facts are gathered together and all the experiences of the pupil are focused upon a particular problem to be solved by him with the personal help of the advisor. The counselor will need the pupil's cumulative record and a time and place for personal interviews.

Exploration and training opportunities, as the terms imply, involves securing, cataloging, and disseminating information concerning additional training possibilities. Some pupils will need to go to work while in the secondary school or immediately following graduation therefrom, while others will want to prepare for a profession. All will need reliable information as to where more training and preparation can be secured. The further up the school ladder the pupil goes, the more important it is to have very definite and detailed information about other types of schools available. Some of this needed information can be found in vocational monographs, commercial directories, and catalogs.

By placement is meant the giving of assistance to pupils in securing employment, either part-time or permanent. The placement officer must have the time and ability to make personal contacts with employers. Placement involves preparation on the part of the pupil and assistance on the part of the placement officer.

The follow-up is the continued contact with the individual and his employer for a period of years. This service is beneficial to both the pupil and the school. Even when care has been taken to place individuals many will be misplaced and will need to be changed. They will need the continued assistance of those who know them best. Follow-up is a new service, but it is a necessary step in a complete guidance program. To be effective it must be sold to the community and to the pupils.

The manner in which these six areas are to be covered will vary according to the means at hand and the requirements of a particular

community. How details should be administered, what persons may be charged with the various functions, by what title they may be called, and how they shall perform their duties, are matters subject to local initiative and control. It is believed, however, that an adequate program, no matter how it may be carried out, will operate throughout these six areas.

CONTRIBUTING GUIDANCE AGENCIES

The value of machinery set up for guidance is dependent upon the extent to which individual pupils are helped. Different schools use different methods and employ different agencies for doing the same work. Since guidance is a co-operative function and should not be left entirely to specialists, one should look, not to one, but to many agencies for assistance. Some of the agencies frequently used are: regular school subjects, special courses, exploratory courses, extra-curriculum activities, the home room, special counselors, the organization of the school, the school proper, handbooks, assembly, bulletin boards, and pictures.

The introduction of occupational information through the regular school subjects unifies the whole program. Every subject in the curriculum can be used to disseminate vocational information and to arouse vocational interests. It should be understood, however, that any plan to introduce guidance through the regular subjects is merely supplementary. The study of English presents many opportunities for practical applications relating to the study of occupations. In geography, history, and all the sciences there are opportunities at times to put the emphasis upon industry, agriculture and other occupations. It is not so important to introduce new material for guidance as it is to utilize the entire work of the school, organized for general educational purposes, and when possible, to use the occupational approach to vitalize and motivate all school work.

Some schools offer special instruction in educational and vocational information. Such instruction is basic for the other functions of guidance. The school should have both educational and vocational objectives. Vocational guidance is defined as the assistance that is given in connection with choosing, preparing for, entering upon, and making progress in an occupation. Instruction about occupations should give practice in vocational surveys and job analysis as well as information concerning a variety of occupations.

Exploratory or try-out courses are usually found in the junior high school. Such subjects as general science, general mathematics and general shop are given with the view of providing opportunities for exploration. These courses enable the pupils to learn more about themselves and the major fields of human activities.

Sponsors of extra-curriculum activities should keep in mind the guidance possibilities of these activities. Cases without number could be furnished in which boys and girls, through participation in extra-curriculum activities, have found themselves to be talented and interested

in a particular field or activity and have thus been led into profitable and satisfying vocational lines. Many others have found that they were lacking in talent for occupations which they had planned to enter.

THE HOME-ROOM PROGRAM

There is a radical difference of opinion regarding the place of the home room in guidance. It is probably true that the home-room plan has not been too successful as an instrument of guidance. It has seldom had a chance to work. In some schools it is no more than a place and time for taking care of the administrative functions of the school. In others, teachers are not selected with the qualifications and training necessary for good home-room advisors. In others, teachers are not wisely and sympathetically supervised. And in others no materials are furnished and no time allowed for interviews and study of individual differences. No wonder it has not been successful.

When sponsors are selected with due regard for their qualifications, training, and interests; when they are furnished with the necessary equipment and supplies; when they are given the time and opportunity to study and counsel their pupils; when they are properly supervised; when they are brought to view their work in the proper light and to see the value of establishing friendly relations, of being patient, and of being forgiving; and when they are held definitely responsible for the guidance of their respective groups, the home room will be the most powerful factor in the guidance program. The foundation of all guidance is in the home room. The home room aims to re-assemble the individual disintegrated by departmentalization. The home-room sponsor has the opportunity of knowing the members of her group more intimately and more accurately than a classroom teacher or a specialist can ever know them. She knows them in all their relationships. When pupils are sent to occupational experts, college experts, social experts, and educational experts without someone to unify and interpret the help given by them, the results are confusing.

In those schools where the home room is properly provided for, the influence of the home-room advisor often exceeds that of the pupils' own parents. Ideals and ambitions are fostered, facts explaining delinquencies are discovered, pupils become good citizens, and the happiness of boys and girls is increased.

THE PLACE OF THE SPECIALIST

There is a place in the guidance program for the specialist. The number needed will depend upon the size of the school. He may be called dean of guidance, director of guidance, vocational counselor, superintendent, or principal. The title does not matter. He should be trained in guidance techniques. He should be able to assist the home-room sponsors by suggesting better techniques and by furnishing them with reliable occupational information. He should be responsible for the testing program, placement, and follow-up. He should perhaps teach a special class in occupations. He should be able to make successful contacts with business and industry in

order to be continuously familiar with changing conditions, occupational trends, and opportunities.

The success of any guidance program depends not upon how pretty it sounds or how smoothly it seems to work, but upon the degree to which it provides for the individual and his peculiar needs. The problem of organization is one of co-ordinating the guidance activities of the school in such a way (1) that all the forces of the school shall bear in a unified and consistent way upon the problems of each pupil; (2) that definite responsibility for parts of guidance be placed upon certain agencies and individuals; (3) that the school work be so divided that each person and each agency shall know what its particular duty and responsibility are; and (4) that the individual pupil shall have unified assistance so that he will not be confused.

If we wish to have a usable guidance program for our secondary schools, we need to ask the higher institutions to train teachers for work in guidance; we need to select teachers with personalities essential for guidance; we need to have a full understanding between administrators and teachers as to the importance of guidance; we need to organize the school so as to use all of its agencies in providing for the six areas of guidance; and we need to hold the teachers responsible for guidance in the same way as we do for the teaching of English or mathematics.



A typical classroom scene in the Montgomery Blair High School of Silver Spring, Maryland. The pupils of this school look upon the classroom as a workshop or laboratory rather than a recitation room.

A Six - Four - Four Plan in Operation

E. H. FARNER, PRINCIPAL, W. H. GUTHRIDGE and D. B. YOEEL

Faculty Members of the Junior College, Parsons, Kansas

In the fall of 1935, with the approval and recommendation of the student body, the community, the faculty, and the various departments of school administration, the schools of Parsons, a city of fourteen thousand in Southeastern Kansas, were organized under the system generally referred to as the 6-4-4 plan. (In reality, it is a 7-4-4 plan because the kindergarten work is definitely a part of the school program in this community.) During the six years of the operation of this plan, most of the anticipated advantages of the re-organization have been realized, and such a small percentage of unforeseen difficulties has arisen that there is now no question of this being just an experiment: it is here to stay until something better is developed.

No doubt a substantial factor in the psychological success of the adoption is the fact that the *pro's* and *con's* of the plan were carefully studied by community, student, faculty, and administrative groups throughout several years preceding the adoption. A nationally known authority on this particular type of organization was employed as advisor.

Another factor which made the acceptance easy was the fact that the physical equipment of the schools was ideal. In addition, the personnel problem did not present the difficulties it might in some situations. There were two junior high schools which had plenty of room to accommodate the additional tenth grade pupils. The senior high school and junior college were housed in the same building. It had been a definite policy for practically all of the teachers of the junior college to teach secondary-school classes. There was one central office for both units.

Under the present plan of organization, there are four elementary units (consisting of kindergarten and grades one through six), two four-year junior high schools or lower secondary units (grades seven through ten), and a four-year junior college or upper secondary unit. The two junior high schools are rapidly dropping the word *junior* from their name, and there is some tendency toward calling the four-year college simply the college. Among other terminology already accepted are *lower division* for grades eleven and twelve and *upper division* for thirteen and fourteen.

A description and evaluation of this program will perhaps be more useful if it is divided into the more-or-less commonly recognized categories; hence the divisions which are indicated.

ADMINISTRATION

It is apparent that a change from the 6-3-3-2 to the 6-4-4 plan of school organization greatly simplifies the problem of administration. The principal of the three-year junior high school can easily expand his program to accommodate the tenth grade if he has the necessary building and equip-

ment facilities. Indeed, as shall be indicated later in this discussion, the organization is improved by the change since a four-year unit has many advantages over a three-year or a two-year unit. In the upper levels, the 6-3-3-2 plan requires either separate and distinct administrators for the senior high school and the junior college or one administrator with dual responsibilities. Neither of these can be commended. The first method is unduly expensive, it cannot have the integration which seems advisable, and it requires the operation of a three-year and a two-year unit. The administration of the two units by one office is cumbersome and unwieldy.

It is easily seen, then, that from the point of view of the administrator, the 6-4-4 plan has much to commend itself. In Parsons, the former organization required that the three-year senior high school and the two-year junior college be operated in the same building and by the same administrator. The change to a four-year unit has proved eminently satisfactory as a means of simplifying office procedure, curriculum problems, and the operation of assembly and other all-school programs.

One of the administrative problems not yet solved is that of simplifying and unifying the system of records and credits. A credit unit still means one thing in the lower division, another thing in the upper. The problem, of course, arises because of transfers to and from other secondary schools and colleges. A committee has been working on the matter. It would seem that a system will be evolved which will be satisfactory.

ECONOMY

One of the claims made for this new type of organization is that of economy both for the student and the taxpayer. Parson's experience hardly justifies this claim so far as the student is concerned as there is practically no difference in the cost to the student under the two types of organization. There is one exception to this statement, however. Students who live in the east part of the city—the junior college is on the west side—now get one more year of their schooling close to their homes. In such matters as noon lunches and transportation, there are appreciable savings to the students. The per-student cost of operating the school can be reduced, however, in several ways. In certain departments students from the upper and lower divisions of the four-year junior college are now admitted to the same classes, whereas the students of the junior college and the senior high school were formerly strictly segregated in all departments. As will be pointed out later, the 6-4-4 plan has resulted in bridging the gap between the twelfth and thirteenth grades rather effectively. As a consequence, the enrollment in the upper division has increased noticeably so that we are able to operate capacity classes in nearly all departments. That means a reduction in the per-student cost in class-room instruction.

GROUPING

Another advantage of the 6-4-4 organization is the more favorable age spread of the students within the educational units. The junior high school is traditionally the unit of early adolescence. Physically and psychologically

a normal tenth grader seems to be a part of this group. Students from the eleventh grade through the fourteenth are neither early adolescents nor adults. An educational system which is adapted to these natural groupings has the advantage of greater homogeneity.

ARTICULATION

Since the very beginning of the junior college movement, one of its functions has been that of bridging the gap between the twelfth and thirteenth grades. Combining grades eleven, twelve, thirteen, and fourteen into a single unit removes the emphasis from secondary-school graduation and places it upon graduation from junior college. In 1934, the year before the system was re-organized on the 6-4-4 plan, fifty-three per cent of the twelfth-grade graduates enrolled in the thirteenth year of the junior college. The percentage of twelfth-year students continuing on as thirteenth-grade students has increased to seventy per cent. It would be difficult to prove that this increase is due wholly, or even in part, to the fact that the last four years is being operated as a single unit. However, the faculty feels that the present organization has contributed to this increase. It is very probable that graduation from the twelfth grade will eventually be eliminated at the request of the twelfth-grade students themselves. This retention of students from the twelfth to the thirteenth grades may raise the question about what is happening between the tenth and eleventh grades, where the break between the two units occurs. The school's experience has been satisfactory in this respect. The number of "dropouts" between these two years is no greater now than it was before the re-organization of the secondary system.

The fact that the clubs and the various organizations are open to all the students within the unit tends toward better articulation. Other factors which contribute to the articulation of the upper and lower divisions might be mentioned also. Certain subjects of a skill nature, such as typing and art, are open to students from either division. Practically all staff members teach in both the lower and the upper divisions. Soon it is hoped to give credit in all four years of the junior college on a semester-hour basis. The eleventh, twelfth, thirteenth, and fourteenth grades are to be called the freshman, sophomore, junior, and senior classes, respectively.

INSTRUCTION

It is probable that the 6-4-4 plan attracts better qualified teachers in both of the four-year units. Educational requirements of the staff which have been traditional in the secondary school are carried over into the junior high school; those which have been traditionally junior college are carried over into the whole upper four-year unit. The master's degree or its equivalent is characteristic of the staff of the junior college.

Aside from teacher-training standards, the 6-4-4 plan probably makes for improved teaching because it enables the administrator to make his assignments vertically, within the teacher's field of special preparation,

rather than horizontally, where the teacher often must handle subjects not in his major field of interest. In a large institution, or in one where the facilities of the secondary school and junior college, are largely the same individuals, this particular teaching factor will not be much affected by the adoption of the four-year organization, but in the smaller institutions and in those where the secondary school and junior college are not closely integrated, the change for the better should be quite noticeable. An implication of this same point is that the upper-division teachers are aware of the problems of secondary education as they relate to the entire unit. Consequently, teaching methods are more harmonious than where a sharp break is made between the twelfth and thirteenth years.

CURRICULUMS

Since the last two years of the secondary school and the thirteenth and fourteenth years are treated as a single unit, it no longer seems necessary nor justifiable to continue offering beginning subjects in the same course on both levels. Consequently, some duplications have been eliminated. For instance, general chemistry and physics are offered only as upper-division subjects. Secondary-school physics and chemistry have been replaced by a comprehensive course called science survey.

Those to whom we look for leadership in the junior college have consistently pointed out that one of the functions of the junior college is that of supplying well-rounded curriculums of a terminal nature to those students who probably will terminate their formal education upon completion of junior college. The four-year unit allows greater continuity in the planning and construction of these terminal curriculums. It also tends to place the more technical and strictly vocational training in the upper division where it probably belongs. This allows for a broader and, it is hoped, a more thorough foundation upon which to give this more technical part of the training.

Of the twelve four-year curriculums which are offered in this unit, three are very definitely terminal: auto mechanics, printing, and secretarial training. Three others, agriculture, education (leading to the granting of the two-year renewable certificate), and industrial education, are largely terminal, but are frequently followed by students who later continue their work in the senior college.

Recently there has been a tendency to place certain subject-matter courses a year or so later in the curriculum than was formerly the practice. For example, algebra and geometry were for years traditionally ninth- and tenth-grade subjects, respectively. Now, a number of the leaders in the field are advocating algebra in the tenth and geometry in the eleventh grade. The four-four organization of the secondary grades makes this new placement of these subjects fit very logically.

ACTIVITIES

In certain respects, the four-year unit strengthens the activity program a great deal. For instance, instead of having a Hi-Y club for the eleventh-

and twelfth-grade boys, and a Y. M. C. A. for the thirteenth- and fourteenth-grade boys, there is now one organization, called the Y. M. C. A., open to all boys in the school. This makes one good-sized club, with the strength and enthusiasm that comes with numbers. This is true throughout the entire club program. One might expect that the lower division students would be at a disadvantage so far as opportunities for becoming leaders and officers in their respective organizations are concerned. In this school there seems to be a satisfactory distribution. On the other hand, every sponsor of a school activity realizes the difficulty of building up a sustained program where the entire personnel turns over every two years, as it does in the traditional junior college. In a speech club, for instance, the "greenhorns" of one year must be the old, experienced members by the next fall. Obviously it is difficult to build up strong student leadership under such a system. In Parsons it is considered one of the functions of the junior-college unit to aid the student make the transition from teacher-directed activity to self-directed activity. The four-year spread in intramural organizations seems to facilitate the achievement of that objective.

In interscholastic activities the same advantages would accrue if a school could compete with other schools similarly organized. It is probably a mistake to try to force too hastily this four-year organization on such activities as sports and forensics. In the meantime, the upper-division groups compete with the two-year junior colleges of their conference, as they have always done; and the lower-division teams compete with the three-year senior high schools of their league. The lower group has the advantage of drawing its material from a four-year junior high school that carries on a full program of activities.

One of the most interesting results which has been ascribed in part to the effect of the four-year spread in the student body is the apparently increased solidarity of school or group spirit. Whether the activity is upper or lower division, if it is worthy it gets the attention, interest, and support of the entire student body. The Pep Club with its personnel made up from both divisions seems to be just as peppy at a lower as at an upper division football game. Students from neighboring secondary schools who come here for junior-college work seem to become quickly a part of this inclusive rather than exclusive spirit. The school's experience with four-year activity organizations has been particularly happy in the field of music. Both instrumental and vocal groups are among the most successful in its history.

GUIDANCE

A personnel program is essentially individual guidance. Treating these last four years of secondary education as a single unit tends to give this guidance program more continuity. A student is assigned to an advisor at the time of his first enrollment in this unit, and he remains in this instructor's advisory group as long as he remains in the unit. This gives the student and his advisor time to become well acquainted with each other.

It also offers an opportunity for at least a four-year plan of educational guidance to be mapped out and followed. Of course, the same thing is true for the first four-year unit of secondary education.

EDUCATIONAL FUNCTION OF THE NEW JUNIOR-COLLEGE UNIT

In the operation of this four-year junior college, the objective is neither a glorified secondary school nor a collegiate institution in which the traditions and objectives of the orthodox four-year college are emulated. Since the junior college is generally recognized as an institution belonging in the field of secondary education, it should be closely integrated with the secondary school. The union of these two units, however, calls for an institution which is unique in character. It should not be a secondary school; it should not be a college; it should be, as its name indicates, a junior college.

The fundamental reason for considering the junior-college years as part of the secondary-school field is that the process of general education is usually concluded at the end of the two college years. If that is the reason for combining the orthodox secondary-school with the first two years of college work, it goes without saying that the objectives of the new institution should be characterized by that consideration. General education is considered to include all phases of training excepting the distinctive, specialized courses which characterize the work in the senior college and the graduate school. This does not exclude from the junior college curriculum vocational work which might be characterized as semi-professional in character. The junior college should include the necessary academic subjects which will prepare the student for entrance into the professional school or into the junior class of a four-year college or university. As the enrollment increases, however, the offering must be made much more diversified than that. So far as possible it should accommodate all students who enter and who wish to complete their junior-college years before entering some vocation. The training such students require will include those courses which have to do with the science of living and of citizenship, and so far as possible, courses which will enable the student to choose his vocation wisely and to be prepared to enter that vocation when he completes his junior-college years.

In conclusion, then, it appears to us that the 6-4-4 plan has been successful in Parsons, not because it was a radical experiment, but because it facilitated the accomplishment of things already being tried before the plan was adopted. It created few new problems; it helped to solve several of the old ones.

An Improved Method for Ranking Secondary-School Pupils

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In practically all secondary schools there is prepared a ranking list of graduates, or prospective graduates, indicating the relative standing of each member of the class. This is done each semester for the current senior class, the information being quite generally needed by colleges or the next higher school attended. This ranking also furnishes the basis for scholarships and other awards, and information sought by prospective employers. Such a list is quite often prepared also for lower semester classes as an index for predicting a pupil's final standing.

If a school uses letter grades in its marking system, it is necessary that they be converted to numerical equivalents and an arithmetical average be computed therefrom. The following are typical numerical equivalents: A=98, B=91, C=82, D=73, E=60, F=50. They represent the median of each letter range where A is 100 to 96, B is 95 to 87, C is 86 to 78, D is 77 to 70, E represents a "made-up," and F an "un-made-up," failure.

Suppose it were desired to find the class standing of a pupil by this method. Assume that his grades were three A's, four B's, three C's, and three D's. Using the above numerical equivalents, the procedure is:

$$\begin{array}{r} 3 \times 98 = 294 \\ 4 \times 91 = 364 \\ 3 \times 82 = 246 \\ 3 \times 73 = 219 \end{array}$$

$$13 \qquad)1123 \text{ (86.38)}$$

A similar computation would be made for each pupil in the class. Then the entire list of pupils must be arranged, placing them from the highest to the lowest in order of their relative standing. The rank of each pupil is then determined by his respective number on the list. This method, used by many schools, will be referred to as Method 1 and will later be compared to an improved Method 3. No criticism is made of its mathematical accuracy, but the amount of computational labor and time involved are excessive.

Let us now examine a second method, Method 2, which is also widely used. In this method an arbitrary, convenient numerical value is assigned to each letter grade. Typical of such schemes is the following: A=4, B=3, C=2, D=1, F=0. The number of points is added and, for an average, is divided by the number of grades. For example, assume a pupil has three A's four B's, three C's, and three D's. The procedure is:

$$\begin{array}{r} 4 \times 3 = 12 \\ 3 \times 4 = 12 \\ 2 \times 3 = 6 \\ 1 \times 3 = 3 \end{array}$$

$$13 \qquad)33 \text{ (2.54 (his index number))}$$

The pupils are then ranked in descending order by their index numbers. Computationally this method is easier than the first, and that is its chief virtue; but, as we shall show, it is not accurate nor is it sufficiently differentiating.

The unreliability of Method 2 can be demonstrated by the following example. Suppose it is desired to rank three boys,—Tom, Dick, and Harry. Assume ten grades for each, for the sake of simplicity; let the distribution of grades be:

	A	B	C	D	F
Tom	7	0	0	3	0
Dick	6	0	2	2	0
Harry	0	9	1	0	0

Using Method 2 Tom's index number is 3.1, Dick's, 3.0, and Harry's, 2.9. Poor Harry brings up the rear in the proverbial Tom, Dick, and Harry order. Let us expose this traditional injustice to Harry by the use of Method 1. Applying the numerical equivalents used therein Tom receives a 90.5, Harry a 90.1, and Dick an 89.8. The tradition is broken and Harry no longer occupies the cellar! Hereafter it is Tom, Harry, and Dick.

A careful inspection of the accompanying table will reveal that the above illustration of Tom, Dick, and Harry is not exceptional. Of the twelve pupils ranked in the table according to Method 2, eleven should be re-ranked if their true averages are to be used for ranking in accordance with Method 1. This shows that the inaccuracies resulting from Method 2 will be numerous, and that in general it will be unreliable. It is not claimed that this high a percent of cases will necessarily be in error in any given class. In fact, in the long run, agreement may exceed disagreement between the two methods. The fact remains that any method introducing errors should be avoided. It is a serious thing to tell a pupil that he is ineligible to attend this or that college because he does not rank in the upper third of his class when he has actually been incorrectly ranked by a school that fails to use the proper numerical values that its letter grades represent.

In Table 1 all of the pupils were assumed to have the same number of grades and credits, namely ten. It should be brought out that if this number ten were increased (and it generally would be higher) the size of the discrepancies incurred in Method 2 would increase; also, if the number of credits for each pupil were different, as is likely, the percentage of cases incorrectly ranked would generally increase. Another disadvantage of Method 2 is the considerably larger percentage of ties resulting, as may be observed from the same table.

The purpose of this paper is to present a new method which possesses the advantages of existing methods and yet eliminates their disadvantages. This will now be described as the new Method 3. The plan of computation follows that of Method 1 which was cited above as being mathematically accurate. However, the computation is shortened by the use of several computing tables which the author has prepared. They accomplish mechanically the multiplication and division required, leaving only the addition to be

done by longhand or adding machine. They can be used to advantage, with or without an adding machine, at a great reduction of time and computational labor. This method, practical and highly profitable in the economy of time, is now in use in the secondary schools of Washington, D. C. where the method was recently introduced.

TABLE 1. COMPARISON OF RANKING
BY METHODS 1 AND 2

Pupil	Distribution of Grades					Average		Re-ranking per Method 1
	A	B	C	D	F	Method 2	Method 1	
1	5	1	4	0	0	3.1	90.9	2
2	6	0	3	1	0	3.1	90.7	3
3	7	0	0	3	0	3.1	90.5	5
4	0	10	0	0	0	3.0	91.0	1
5	2	7	0	1	0	3.0	90.6	4
6	5	0	5	0	0	3.0	90.0	7
7	6	0	2	2	0	3.0	89.8	9
8	0	9	1	0	0	2.9	90.1	6
9	1	8	0	1	0	2.9	89.9	8
10	2	5	3	0	0	2.9	89.7	10
11	5	0	4	1	0	2.9	89.1	12
12	0	9	0	1	0	2.8	89.2	11

The author's tables utilize the same numerical equivalents as mentioned in Method 1 and for the reasons explained therein; these were: A=98, B=91, C= 82, D=73, E=60, and F=50. Any school using any or all of these equivalents can use these identical tables, but if other equivalents are insisted upon, new tables must be made, based upon the same principle. However, the above equivalents, using 100 as the top and 70 as the passing mark, are typical of average practice in secondary schools. Although similar tables could be constructed by utilizing the equivalents 4, 3, 2, 1, and 0 as used in Method 2, these values are not recommended as a basis of calculation for reasons explained.

Exhibited below for the sake of illustration, is a portion of one of these tables (Table 12) with an explanation of its use by an example or two. Thus, suppose a pupil has 4 A's, 3 B's, 3 C's, and 2 D's; as there is a total of 12 grades we turn to Table 12. In column A go to line 4; in the column B to line 3, in the column C to line 3, and in the column D to line 2. Set-

ting down the tabular values found and adding them, the result, 88.08, is secured, $32.667 + 22.75 + 20.5 + 12.167 = 88.084$.

In this problem it was assumed that each grade represented a full one-credit subject. Suppose, on the contrary, that the pupil's four A's represented $3\frac{1}{2}$ credits; we call this $3\frac{1}{2}$ A's. In the A column of the table on the top $\frac{1}{2}$ -line and the 3-line is found 4.083 and 24.5 respectively. If one adds these values, he secures 28.583. This sum is then added to the proper B, C, etc., values. In any of the above cases a computing machine will save time. But the tables obviate the need of division which is time-consuming either by machine or longhand; in fact, addition is the only process required.

It is important to exercise care in using the proper table as determined by the total number of credits involved for each student. Thus, if the credits to be averaged total $17\frac{1}{2}$, Table $17\frac{1}{2}$ would be used. The tables available run from 8 to $21\frac{1}{2}$ credits, by half-credit intervals, thus making a total of twenty-eight tables. The author will be glad to furnish at a nominal price a complete set of these tables to any school or school system desiring to use them. They have been copyrighted and printed in handy form, accompanied by complete instructions for their use.

NUMERICAL VALUES TO BE USED IN COMPUTING BY METHOD 3

Table 12

	A	B	C	D	E	F
$\frac{1}{2}$	4.083	3.792	3.417	3.042	2.5	2.083
1	8.167	7.583	6.833	6.083	5.	4.167
2	16.333	15.167	13.667	12.167	10.	8.333
3	24.5	22.75	20.5	18.25	15.	12.5
4	32.667	30.333	27.333	24.333	20.	16.667
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It is the practice in preparing the ranking list of seniors in the Theodore Roosevelt Senior High School to average only the credits received during the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth semesters. Studies show that this furnishes the best index for the prediction of future scholastic success. A list is prepared at the end of the seventh and again at the end of the eighth semesters. Experience has shown that the pupils rank practically the same on the two lists.

Co-ordination of School and NYA Programs*

CHARLES H. LAKE

Superintendent of Schools, Cleveland, Ohio

The present emergency makes us keenly aware of the continuing responsibility of every American citizen to be prepared to serve the interests of his country effectively. To promote such preparation there must be inaugurated and developed in each community a comprehensive plan to prepare youth for assuming the responsibilities of active and productive citizenship and a plan for the utilization of such citizenship on a scale which will contribute most effectively to the national welfare. When this present emergency passes, the problem of the utilization of the services of youth will be greatly accentuated, and it will be more than ever important that our plan for youth development include a continuous program for the building and maintenance of morale.

In the interests of the conservation of our human resources, it should be impressed upon our young people that education is a very important part of defense and that the program of preparation for war or peace includes the education of youth as a definite part of such preparation. To be valuable, abilities of people must be developed and trained for use. The normal period of education must not be curtailed if youth is to serve our country best.

Those youths who can and will prepare themselves best in school, as indicated by their success, should be encouraged and if necessary assisted to remain in school until they have achieved a development which makes productive employment both attainable and desirable. For all those whose continuance in school depends upon their personal earnings, opportunity for productive work should be provided. For those who cannot remain in school, there should be provided a program of education and work through which opportunities are offered them to develop their abilities while doing productive work. It should be impressed upon our young people that social and economic security can be attained only through work and that each youth has a definite obligation to be actively employed either in school or in some form of productive work.

Work opportunity, as a part of the out-of-school training program for NYA youth, should be offered primarily for the fulfillment of a program of

*This statement of policy was considered and adopted by the National School Work Council on August 10, 1941. It is recommended as a guiding policy for all local educational systems.

The National School Work Council

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personal development, rather than on a basis of providing relief. It is, therefore, incumbent upon each community to provide a learning program which is adapted to meet the growth needs of each youth and in which each youth has a reasonable chance of experiencing success. In order that school communities may meet their obvious responsibility for education and training, there should be an aggressive extension and adaptation of the secondary-school curriculum into areas which will afford opportunities to young people whose educational needs are not now met.

A few years ago, the problem of providing adequate work experience for youth was not a serious one. Recently, however, this problem has become acute. In the past few years, many young people who were prepared and ready to do productive work have been unable to find such work to do. If we are to conserve our human resources, there must be work for these young people to do—work that is genuine, that has a social value and is worth pay. In some way or other, we must organize our country so that there is reasonable employment opportunity at all times. Whenever there are young people who cannot find work through their own activities, then government has a responsibility to provide work for them. In effect, government must provide the jobs which industry does not provide in those periods when a large number of people cannot find work. Our young people cannot be thrown into a reservoir of idleness and held there for future use without serious social and economic loss. Under such conditions, youth deteriorates rapidly.

WORK EXPERIENCE ESSENTIAL

Work experience is essential for the development of youth, educationally, socially, emotionally, and physically. Recent actual experiences with work education in our secondary schools and colleges, as well as in such organizations as the Civilian Conservation Corps and the National Youth Administration, have given educators and others who have been working with the problem, confidence in their ability to develop a program of work and related education which will be valid in all respects.

The preparation of a person for assuming the responsibilities of active and productive citizenship calls for education in all its phases including work experience. His total education will include training closely related to his work, vocational training, and a well-rounded program designed for his development as an individual equipped for intelligent participation in all aspects of social living.

Work experience, to be most valuable from the standpoint of education, must be suited to the abilities of the worker just as the other aspects of his educational program must be adjusted to his needs and abilities. If such work experience is to be as valuable as it should be, it must be work that produces something of economic value to society, either in goods or services. The National Youth Administration, or any government agency providing work, should furnish productive job experiences which as nearly as possible approach the conditions of work in industry.

There is no clear line of demarcation between education and work in their effect on the learning processes of young people. A valid educational program will include some real work experience, and well-planned work experience will include much education and training. If it is believed that good work experience is also good education experience, then there is no reason why a correlated program of work and school experience cannot be developed through which school credit and wages may be earned at the same time and through which each youth may work toward a well-rounded educational result in terms of complete preparation for citizenship practices.

These statements have a clear implication on the relationships that should exist between NYA work programs and public educational institutions. Clearly there is a service to be accomplished with those youths between the ages of eighteen and twenty-five who are neither in school nor at work. With the proper co-ordination of the services of our governmental agencies, these young people can be adjusted to our society much more effectively than they otherwise would be. Many elements of training for the job cannot be separated from the job itself and these elements of training must be the responsibility of those who supervise the work on the job. The ultimate aim of this particular kind of education is production.

On the other hand, there is much training for specific work situations which may better be done where instruction is given greater emphasis than production. This type of training can best be done in the schools. An understanding of how to get along with other workers is the result of practice in association with other workers; however, an understanding of the general problems which relate to industry and labor may well be attained through regular classroom work in school. More attention should be given to the guidance of out-of-school youth into fields of work suited to their capacities and abilities. This service may well be a co-ordinated one, the informational aspects of which will be given in our schools and the follow-up work on the job administered through the NYA.

SHARING RESPONSIBILITY

At all times the schools will continue to have, as they have had in the past, a responsibility to provide for those who are regularly enrolled, that training for work which is not best carried on in industry itself. When a government agency undertakes to provide employment in those periods when employment is not provided in sufficient quantity by the normal demands of industry, the schools should carry on the same relationships with the government agency that they would with industry in normal times.

The National Youth Administration is a government agency designed to promote the development of youth in all ways and to work for the conservation of youth as a vital factor in our national welfare. It is not the purpose of the National Youth Administration to establish a continuous paternalistic system affecting youth, but to assist young people to recognize their own powers and abilities and to assist them to become self-reliant citizens who are capable of going on under their own power after a period of training and work experience.

To facilitate the solution of our youth problems, each institution or agency concerned must understand clearly the purposes to be accomplished, each agency must know what its particular responsibilities for the program are, and must accept those responsibilities. It is easy to become so involved in the specifics of a particular job that goals or purposes become indefinite. All such difficulties, however, can be overcome through a co-ordination of the agencies concerned so that their respective efforts fit into the total picture designed for developing the kind of citizens democracy needs.

It should be the responsibility of each state department of education to promote, administer, and supervise a valid program of "related education" within the state. The cost of administering and supervising the program should be shared jointly by the state and the local taxing subdivision.

The responsibility of the community to youth does not end with graduation or upon leaving school for some other reason. As a part of the continuing program for youth development, the schools of the community and the National Youth Administration should co-ordinate the program of education and training so that work experience and school experience supplement each other and are interdependent. It is essential that we have a definite plan to govern the co-operation of the National Youth Administration and public education, and that all administrators of the program work together for the success of the program. The failure of either will be the failure of both, and the program will suffer correspondingly.

Attention! School Administrators

For the past two years the OCCUPATIONAL FOLLOW-UP AND ADJUSTMENT SERVICE PLAN has been developed and inaugurated in about two hundred schools throughout the country. A subsidy from the General Education Board has made this work possible. The program is now to become self-supporting and after September 1, 1941 is being administered from the central office of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals in Washington, D. C., along with the other activities of the Association. The *Implementation Commission* will continue its direct supervision.

As has been the case in the past, the materials involved in the Plan will be furnished to the schools at the lowest possible price. Although there will no longer be a field man to visit participating schools, the advisory service to the schools will be continued from the Washington office.

A revision of the Plan has been made. This revision is a simpler edition of the original and will require less energy and time than the use of the former instruments and procedures. These new and simpler materials can be purchased from the Secondary-School Principals' Association.

The change in the headquarters of the Study marks the end of the major experimental phase. A report on the try-out of this follow-up Plan dealing with the experience of schools in operating it will be published as THE BULLETIN, No. 101, November 1941. A more complete description of the *Service Plan* appears on pages 97-100.

Youth and Jobs

THE ASSOCIATION CARRIES ON THE OCCUPATIONAL ADJUSTMENT STUDY

Workers in the field of secondary education are coming more and more to the point of view that the school's responsibility to youth does not end when the formal academic relationship is terminated, and that there is need for evaluating the work of the school in terms of the achievements of pupils after they are out of school. These trends are evidenced not only by the discussion in the literature of the necessity for helping youth during the first few years of post-school adjustment, but also by the increasing number of schools which are attempting by some follow-up procedure to get what facts they can about the youth's experiences during this period.

Any school which is making a determined effort to adjust its program to the assured and probable future needs of its pupils will want to know as much as possible about the activities these youths are going to engage in and the conditions they are going to face. One way of learning this is to find out these things from the youth who have already left the school.

HISTORY AND OBJECTIVES OF THE PRESENT PLAN

The Implementation Commission of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, under a grant from the General Education Board in 1939-40, set up and supervised the *Occupational Adjustment Study* with the following two objectives:

1. The discovery of leads as to techniques and practices which could be introduced to make more effective the occupational adjustment of pupils whose formal education will cease at graduation, if not before.
2. The development of a survey-plan which will be of aid to schools in deciding to what extent their pupils, who have not gone on further with formal schooling, make satisfactory occupational adjustment.

The results in attempting to achieve the first objective, as well as a summary of the Plan, are reported in the November 1940 issue of *THE BULLETIN* published by the association.¹ Out of the experiences of the *Occupational Adjustment Study* in attempting to achieve both objectives grew the present plans for individual principals to survey their school-leavers. The purpose of the survey plan is to provide the principal with a means of determining important facts about his school-leavers as a basis for drawing inferences about the effectiveness of his program. It will reveal needs of both in-school and post-school youth which the school should try to meet, and reveal leads as to the relative effectiveness of school practices.

WHAT IS BEING DONE

During the past school year these forms have after revision following

¹Landy, Edward; Beery, John R.; Byron C.; and Long, C. Darl. *Occupational Adjustment and the School*. Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, No. 93, November 1940. 160 pp. \$1.00. To members 50 cents.

their initial development, been used in different ways and for different purposes. Approximately 200 schools in forty-one states ordering a quarter million copies of the various forms have used them in their systems. These 200 schools represent almost every conceivable kind of school situation. They range in size from schools of fewer than 100 pupils to one school with an average daily attendance of more than 3,500 pupils. In one of them as little as fifty to sixty dollars is spent per pupil per year, and in two schools the annual expenditure per pupil is in excess of 240 dollars. Most of the schools are organized as four-year, three-year, or six-year secondary schools. Independent junior college units are maintained in connection with two of the secondary schools, and, in another case, the junior college (grades 13 and 14) is an integral part of a six-year program extending from grades 9 to 14. Two schools have grades 7 to 11 and another school grades 9 to 11.

The communities in which the participating schools are located are of widely differing types. They include purely agricultural communities, purely industrial communities, and suburban residential communities. Other communities are agricultural communities with one or two industrial enterprises; some are agricultural or industrial and in part suburban residential. Also there are certain independent residential communities. As nearly as it is possible to estimate from the sale of forms and the progress reports returned thus far, approximately 60,000 former pupils are being followed up by these 200 schools. The median number of former pupils being followed up by the schools is about 140.

In the light of the information secured from this extensive use of the forms by this wide range of schools and individuals, revisions have been made. As a result newly revised and shortened forms are now available. These forms are in constant demand and schools using them have discovered that the little additional work required to make this survey is more than repaid in the wealth of pertinent information secured about pupils and the school. The survey has resulted in corroborating their belief that the school must of necessity keep informed of its drop-outs and graduates.

THE INSTRUMENTS

Four forms or instruments have been devised. These instruments are *Post-School Inventory* blank, *Follow-up Interview Schedule* blank, *Employer Interview Schedule* card and *Follow-up Card*.

The *Post-School Inventory* blank provides the simplest means of keeping in touch with the entire group of former pupils. The point of view advocated here is that the school should be interested in and concerned about all of its pupils. The school has a responsibility for the youth who drop out before the completion of the traditional course of studies as well as for those who complete the course and are graduated.

The second part of the survey plan is concerned with interviews with former pupils. The suggested interview is based on the *Follow-up Interview Schedule*, and attempts to get at facts, opinions, and attitudes which cannot be so readily secured by means of a written questionnaire.

This blank is designed more for individual use than for obtaining facts for the group, although it is useful for both purposes. The interviews provide a rich source of material for individual case studies.

The *Employer Interview Schedule* card is to be used with employers of youth already interviewed. It is an attempt to secure both factual and opinional information from the employer concerning a particular youth. In using this the interviewer must be on the alert to note down significant comments which will add meaning to the coded answers.

The *Follow-Up Record* card has been designed with several purposes in mind. In the first place, it was necessary for the card to provide spaces for recording all of the data which the *Post-School Inventory* would collect for most of the youth. To this end, the card has been made to provide space for recording important items of information which are, or should be, readily accessible at the time the youth leaves school and all of the items of information from the *Post-School Inventories* for the first, third, and fifth years out of school. In addition, space has been provided for keeping a record of the youth's participation in the counseling and placement program of the secondary school during the first five years out of school.

Secondly, it was important, if these data were to serve any useful purpose, that the card be set up in such a fashion that the data could be readily analyzed. To serve this purpose the code numbers of the variables are written in small cells along the edges of the card. This provides a practical method for sorting the cards with respect to any variable or variables. No special sorting accessories are required. More than one hundred variables may be coded on the edges of the card for sorting. Thirdly, the task of recording of the original data and keeping the card up to date must involve a minimum of time and effort. The only equipment needed to make entries on this card is a pen and a good grade of recording ink.

THE PLAN IN BRIEF

The principal or guidance officer makes it his business to be acquainted with the school-leaving intentions of his pupils. Certain essential school and home background data are collected about the youth while he is in school. When he leaves school these data are put on his *Follow-up Record* card and the card placed in the follow-up files. As information is collected about the youth's post-school occupational life it is added to his card.

Sometime during the middle of the school year all former pupils, drop-outs as well as graduates, who have been out of school approximately one, three, and five years are followed up by means of the *Post-School Inventory*. It may be mailed to the youth or delivered by pupil messengers. The inventory contains objective items of proven value,—most of them with pre-coded responses to be checked by the youth. As the inventories are returned this information is transcribed to the *Follow-up Record* cards for purposes of sorting and cross-analyses. From these analyses, facts about the post-school youth are determined and inferences about the school drawn.

A representative sample of the youth being followed-up during a given year are invited to return to the school to be interviewed. The *Follow-up Interview Schedule*, which contains a number of short, specific questions getting at such things as how well the youth is appraising his present job situation and how sensibly he is planning his occupational future, is used for this purpose. The interview is designed to get at a type of information not readily obtainable from a questionnaire. In addition to providing group information, these interviews may merge into counseling interviews and lay the basis for a program of individual guidance and counsel available to all during the difficult period of immediate post-school adjustment.

The employers of a representative sample of the former pupils, preferably the sample used for the youth interviews, are interviewed using the *Employer Interview Schedule*. This schedule contains short questions, most of which have pre-coded responses to be checked. The questions are concerned with such things as how well the youth has adjusted himself to his job and what the school can do to prepare youth better for work. The interview is designed to get at an important aspect of the youth's occupational adjustment that cannot be understood without talking to the employers directly. It is invaluable in the school's efforts to improve its program of preparation for the local employment opportunities.

The initial installation of the complete Plan any year involves the following activities. Not all of these however, need be done the first year.

1. Transfer selected school data from the permanent records to the *Follow-up Record* cards for all school-leaving youth during three periods, for example September 1, 1936 to July 1, 1937; September 1, 1938 to July 1, 1939; and September 1, 1940 to July 1, 1941.
2. Distribute *Post-School Inventories* (questionnaires) to all of these school-leavers and check on non-returns in order to get as complete returns as possible.
3. Transfer data from the returned *Post-School Inventories* to the *Follow-up Record* cards.
4. Arrange appointments and interview a selected sample of these school-leavers.
5. Arrange appointments and interview a selected sample of the employers of these school-leavers.
6. Make tabulations and analyses of the data on the *Follow-up Record* card and the interview schedules in an effort to draw inferences concerning the effectiveness of the school program.
7. Conduct concurrent publicity program through local newspapers, radio stations, and the like.

The suggested plans have purposely been made flexible so that the individual principal can easily modify them to suit his own purposes and his available time and energy. An attempt has been made to avoid generalities and to suggest procedures as definitely and specifically as possible. Doing this involves the risk inherent in any attempt to provide plans which are to be used in many different school situations.

An Industrial-Educational Survey

M. J. JOSLOW

Conducted by Ludlow High School, Ludlow, Massachusetts

The investigation being carried on by the Ludlow High School is the result of a realization that under present conditions of industrial employment and changing social order, masses of youth were being sent out of public schools without the slightest idea of the demands of this industrial and social order. Realizing that the time had come when it was necessary to find a solution to the problem, the decision was reached to make an investigation of the major industries of greater Springfield. The school wished to learn what these employers expected of the young people who came to them, what the schools could do to improve the product and last, but far from least, how relations between the school and industry could be improved so that the one might help the other. Industry and schools had no common denominator. Each had its own philosophy and operated independently of the other. The schools had felt it was not within their province to confer with industry, nor was industry particularly interested with school procedures. Neither one probably was in sympathy with the procedure of the other.

With the time obviously at hand for schools and industry to get acquainted, the Ludlow High School decided to extend its guidance service to include a study of manufacturing and other employment establishments to learn, if possible, what qualities graduates of the schools possessed which were of decided value to business and industry, and what the schools could do to improve their product. It was hoped that the ultimate result would be a greater and better placement of graduates. With the complete information available about each pupil the school had something to offer the personnel official when he desired information about prospective employees. There were achievement records which showed yearly growth for long periods, many of them reaching from grade five to grade twelve. There were intelligence records, checked and rechecked, so that as accurate a measure as was possible could be given. In addition, personality analyses, usually a composite of the judgment of four or five teachers, were recorded for each of four years. To complete the picture, self-analysis charts including vocational interests were on file.

It was hoped that an exchange could be arranged whereby the schools could offer a service to industry and business and the employer could assist the schools by recording his requirements and making suggestions. A co-operative approach was necessary above everything. A single visit to industry was not in itself sufficient. It was necessary to sell the school and if possible to get industry to come into the educational institution and learn what was going on. A complete understanding of each other's problems was essential to a realization of a solution.

PROCEDURE

The plan of procedure adopted included conferences of the principal and representatives of industry with the hope that each should be frank in stating his difficulty. This was to be followed by further visits by other members of the school staff. In return, representatives of industry would come to the school, to explain what their companies were looking for, to visit the classroom, talk with teachers, and learn what the school office and the guidance service could offer.

To visit every major employment establishment in greater Springfield within a year was an impossibility. This might be done over a long period of time. The study was, therefore, narrowed to the five most important ones, important so far as Ludlow was concerned. Five representative employment agencies were selected and in each long conferences were held with the personnel directors, assistants, and department heads.

DATA

Philosophy of employment—In general, companies have places in their personnel only for those who can fit into the established pattern, that is, those who possess adaptability, reliability, livability, and loyalty. They also consider as valuable a definite amount of cultural background, which, it is agreed, aids in developing these characteristics. All pointed out that their companies were business enterprises and hence operated for profit and that to become a member of the organization there must be production, and that employees must realize that industry would have a place for them only so long as they could produce.

Educational requirements—For professional positions only college graduates are used. For all other positions except laborers, secondary-school graduation or its equivalent is necessary. Vocational skills need not be highly developed. Accuracy in work is more desired than speed. Accordingly, they seek candidates with at least a normal mentality, with a good knowledge of the basic subjects. Also important is the candidate's ability "to get along" with his fellow employees, his superiors, and his neighbors. All sponsor and encourage continued study and promotions are usually made according to the success in this educational work. Several of the companies sponsor evening classes for their employees in the fields of particular interest to the plant.

Frequency of employment—Since employment in any organization is not constant, there is, of necessity, a considerable turn-over from time to time. The trend in the five establishments visited was to transfer from one department to another rather than to lay-off and re-hire, using the lay-off only as a last resort. Two of the personnel managers pointed out that it was harder "to get fired than it was to get hired."

INDUSTRY LISTS THE LIABILITIES AND ASSETS OF THE SCHOOLS

The schools' one big failing, according to most of the personnel directors, is their lack of familiarity with the material side of industry, that is, that a company operates for profit and not in the interests of social organi-

zations. Employers feel that the humane side of employment will come about when this barrier of capital prejudice is lowered. They feel that the schools have not made clear to their pupils the true picture of the capitalistic system and that personal feelings do not enter into the matter of employment.

Another failing of the schools is their failure to provide more opportunities for acquisition of simple vocational skills. It was recommended in several places that public secondary schools should be required to offer courses in machine operation, machine design, and blueprint reading for those boys who are mechanically inclined. Industry has not consulted the schools in the matters of employment because the schools have not informed persons in charge of employment what facilities they have available. Most officials assumed that the only record to be obtained from the schools is that of scholarship. Another criticism of schools, according to these men, is the failure to connect theory with practice. One man suggested that there was "too much preparation for life and not life itself."

Since the five visits were made to five different types of services, each had its own opinion of the achievement of the school. However, the five agreed emphatically that the public schools of today were turning out better informed and more adaptable individuals. Industry also compliments the schools on their recognition that adaptability and reliability are two traits absolutely necessary for employment, especially for permanency. They recognize also that the public school is taking cognizance of the various types of occupations and the requirements of each. They appreciate the guidance given young people in attempting to direct them into proper vocations. One personnel manager pointed out that this policy has saved industry thousands of dollars because young people have been eliminated from employment in fields for which they were not fitted. It was the consensus of the opinions of personnel men that the teachers of the public schools are more conscious of the need for adjustment of individuals during adolescence and they are doing much to produce mentally stable individuals.

THE IMPLICATIONS OF THE SURVEY

The survey, although limited to only five types of employment agencies, gave a fairly complete picture of employment conditions because of the variety of these agencies. The personnel directors and managers were representatives of the group to be found in business and industry and the interviews revealed what the prospective employee may expect when he seeks employment.

From the five conferences it was evident that there is no uniform pattern of employment, no single set of standards by which personnel officials guide themselves. Any specific training which the schools might institute would have little value to all industries. Each agency has its own standards for employment and this is in no way determined by consulting other industries or through conferences with school officials.

These conditions indicate that a trail must be blazed and this can be accomplished only by creating a common ground on which industrial officials, businessmen, employment managers, and school administrators can meet and discuss the problems which concern all. This work will not be done by the industrialists and businessmen. They are concerned mainly with their own businesses and how they may be operated at a profit. It is the schoolman who must go more than half way in bringing about a more complete understanding.

Education and industry are much concerned with social progress, the former because its product must fit into the existing social order, the latter because of the relation of social roles to vocational production. If we are to begin training our citizens in their childhood to use scientific tools, then the schoolman, the industrialist, and the businessman must be fully aware of what the other is doing. Each must understand the achievement of the other and must be sympathetic of his problems. Then and only then can there be a beginning to end the existing gap.

This survey, then, proposes the bridging of the gap by:
Complete confidence of the two groups, industry and education, in each other.

Direct contact between the two by exchange visitations, general meetings and personal conferences.

An explanation by the schools of its offerings to its student body.

A meeting of personnel officials with school administrators and guidance officers to establish specific requirements for employment.

Providing employment managers with complete school records of prospective employees, these records to include, in addition to scholastic achievement, vocational aptitude and personal traits.

Providing school administrators with employment records of individuals, these records to include adaptability, reliability, and production ability.

Frequent discussion of existing problems and needs.

Expansion of scholastic offerings to provide a limited amount of specific training for vocations.

Expansion of guidance programs to assist youths in placing themselves in the existing order of society.

Eliminating the brutal, ruthless systems of employment now in effect in many places and substituting therefor the appreciation of human differences and social problems.

A sincere interest in the community and its people.

Complete co-operation in sociological research insofar as each is affected.

This survey is far from complete. The program will be continued for at least another year and may take two. Progress implies improvement and improvement comes only from a felt need. It is, then, the problem of the school and industry to work co-operatively to discover these needs.

Job Preparation

MARY BECK

Girls Placement, Lincoln High School, Cleveland, Ohio

Last September, Lincoln High School, Cleveland, organized classes in *Job Preparation* to help pupils secure jobs. For several semesters the girls' placement counselor had helped graduates who came back for a three week brush-up in Mathematics and to learn cash register operation, and to practice making change and wrapping packages in order to get store positions. The principal felt that since this course helped graduates, it should be offered under-graduates.

The course is designed to bridge the gap between school and the job and to help the young people develop skills to make them employable. Classes meet one period daily with outside preparation. Part of this "home-work" is holding a part-time job. The course covers one semester with ten points credit. It is designed for those who plan to go to work directly from high school. College preparatory pupils are not permitted to elect it.

The course is in part, a brush-up in the three r's in disguise: reading to understand and follow directions; writing to fill out an application blank completely, to write a good letter of application, a letter following a personal interview, and a situation wanted ad.; and arithmetic to add, subtract, multiply, and divide whole numbers, fractions, and decimals. In addition spelling drills, filing and handwriting lessons stress other assets an employer has a right to expect of a secondary-school graduate.

To emphasize speed, grades for drills are weighted for time. The formula $g = a + 100 - r \div 2$ is used. Thus g represents grade, a , % average and r , rank finishing.

Oral English is an important part of the course. Lincoln High School is located in a low economic area of the city, and the school pupils are for the greater part first generation Americans of Southeastern European stock. Many have never used a telephone. First the pupils study the directory with drill in finding numbers. Finding the governmental agencies is indeed a review of civics. Then pupils practice receiving "in coming" calls such as a beginner on a job might have to handle. They practice answering "help wanted" ads. and calls seeking personal interviews. The local telephone company's teachers help with these telephone lessons. Voice is stressed, and all pupils have an opportunity to hear their voices reflected by the voice mirror.

Oral English again figures in the personal interview over which there is no hurdle in job-seeking. Young people lack confidence in themselves. For practice interviews the pupils work in pairs, applicant and employer. The applicant determines where he wishes to apply, learns the employment manager's name, and informs his partner. Each is required to dress suitably. After the interview the class members make suggestions. Later the pair re-

verse their parts. Before the semester ends, all have interviews with employment managers concerning employment.

WORK EXPERIENCE VALUABLE

Perhaps the most valuable part of the course is this work-experience. Credit is given for two types of jobs: volunteer and paying. When these young people really master their jobs, their personalities develop noticeably. The young people seem to get more self-development from their volunteer jobs—perhaps it is that broadening experience that one only gets from giving. However, employers seem to weigh paid experience more favorably. Supervisors on volunteer jobs feel responsible to see that the pupils profit from the twenty hours of volunteer work given in exchange for a letter of recommendation from the supervisor. Because of labor laws, volunteer service is limited to the social agencies. There volunteers work in offices learning to operate switchboards; acting as receptionists; answering the telephone; and, if they have commercial training, typing, mimeographing, or taking dictation. Other volunteers lead classes in woodwork, postermaking, sewing, cooking, and sports. The following tables show the enrollments and distribution of jobs for two semesters.

Table I
First Semester

Enrolled	84
Own Jobs	25
Volunteer Jobs	41
Paying Jobs	71
Total Jobs	137

Table II
Second Semester

	Boys	Girls	Total
Enrolled	60	60	120
Own Jobs	32	4	36
Volunteer Jobs	31	47	78
Settlement House	14	26	
Draft Boards	1	6	
Y.M.C.A. & Y.W.C.A.	5	8	
Misc.	11	7	
Paying Jobs	37	86	123
Store	29	72	
Waiter	1	6	
Office	1	5	
Misc.	6	3	
Total Jobs	100	136	236

Seventy-five of the second semester people who have paying jobs had an opportunity to attend the company training schools to learn check writing, cashing, and corsage-making. Throughout, the course is a job-getting campaign. Skill-conscious pupils are trying to get experience. The basic

asset is honesty, in employers time, money, and materials. Another asset in this campaign is good grooming. Of course, a good appearance depends upon good posture, and good health is indispensable when it comes to getting and holding a job. Other lessons include a study of jobs open to beginners, ways of getting jobs, holding a job and getting ahead, labor laws, and employee problems.

The second semester classes co-operated with the faculty in interviewing the graduates and drop-outs of 1937. A part of the survey covered what the former pupil needed on the job that he did not get in school. Speech, telephone training, office machines, and home economics are the principal needs expressed. It is gratifying to feel that something has been done to meet these demands.

SECURING THE EQUIPMENT FOR TRAINING

The commercial schools have the office machines. Most of our job preparation equipment is borrowed. For example, local store managers and cash register distributors furnish registers for demonstration and class practice. Similarly local merchants furnish pastry tubes for the home economics girls to learn name writing. Electric multiple billers, electric adding machines, telephones, and the voice mirror are also borrowed. In the school office adding machine pupils learn addition and multiplication.

Of course, borrowing facilities are limited. After a demonstration, the pupil who masters the operation assumes the responsibility to help his neighbor. At such times the classroom is most informal—different groups working on different machines or skills. There is no textbook in use. *Job Preparation* is learning by doing—filing cards for the office, folding, sealing, stamping letters—doing any real job that beginners can do. Drill sheets are mimeographed. The librarian reserves a special shelf for books and pamphlets related to the class work. In addition the following pamphlets, films, and workbooks are used in class:

SUGGESTED REFERENCES

PAMPHLETS

- Consider Your Telephone Personality*, Ohio Bell Telephone Co.
The Correct Use of the Telephone, Ohio Bell Telephone Co., 1939
 Gallagher, Ralph P. *The Intelligent Job Seeker's Guide Book*, 1940.
A Guide to Good Manners, Lincoln High School, 1938
Know Your Money, U. S. Secret Service, Treasury Department.
 Knudson, Wm. S. *If I Were Twenty-one*—Reprinted from *The American Magazine*, June, 1939.

Ten Tips, Ohio State Employment Service

Wiggam, Albert Edward, D.Sc. *How to Apply for a Job*, Kiwanis Club of Cleveland, 1935

Your Labor Laws, Consumer's League of Ohio, 1941

WORKBOOK

Twiss, Ruth M. *When I Go to Work*—Ginn & Co., 1941.

FILMS

Good Service, etc.—Stouffer Restaurants—16 mm. silent.

The New Voice of Mr. X—Ohio Bell Telephone Co.—16 mm. sound.

A Student-Operated Department of Visual Aids

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Questionnaires answered by the faculty of the Oak Park Township High School and conversations with teachers in other schools pointed to the fact that the time and mechanical difficulties encountered in "setting up" and operating projection equipment often disrupted class work and tended to offset many of the advantages of visual aids. As the result of this survey, it was decided to organize a student-operated department in the school to facilitate the effective use of visual materials. A room was equipped for training the projectionist staff and for projecting sound motion pictures. Facilities were provided for storing, servicing and distributing the other projection equipment which included silent motion picture, glass slide, film-strip, opaque and micro-projectors, portable stands, and screens.

SELECTION OF MEMBERS

Effective use of visual aids depends upon the material being projected exactly as requested by the teacher and class. Consequently, it was decided that unqualified recommendations by all of the teachers of each prospective candidate should be the prerequisite for membership in the projectionist staff. The qualifications taken into consideration included: reliability, co-operation, initiative, emotional stability, judgment, grade average, and mechanical aptitude. The charter members were selected from sophomore and junior classes. The selection of candidates has been carried on so that the staff personnel (twenty-four boys) is now made up of an equal number of sophomores, juniors and seniors with a loss of only one-third of the members each year by graduation.

ORGANIZATION AND TRAINING

Staff meetings were held in which the charter members were informed about the importance and place of visual aids in school work. This general information included a brief review of the outstanding research in the field of visual aids, the relation of the different types of projected materials (silent and sound moving pictures, glass slides, opaque materials, film-strips) to the psychology of learning, and the different types of teaching or learning objectives which may be aided through projected visual materials. This background was given to enable the operators to co-operate intelligently with teachers in projecting for different classes. The results far exceeded this goal in that the boys, after understanding the possible values that may be obtained from properly presented visual materials, enthusiastically volunteered to work outside of school hours to insure success of the project. Some worked on committees to form general rules, specific projection standards, and to set up definite procedures for handling equipment and

films. Others aided in planning record forms and in designing and constructing special equipment for the projection booth in the visual-aid room. The service of the department was organized to:

1. Receive and inspect visual materials prior to projection for class work or preview by the teacher,
2. Project material for preview by the teacher,
3. Set up projection equipment with visual materials at the time and place scheduled by the teacher,
4. Project the material exactly as requested by the teacher and class,
5. Return the equipment and material to the visual-aid room at the end of the period,
6. Prepare materials for reshipment to the distribution centers from which they were rented.

As the volume of projection increased, it became necessary to delegate different parts of this service to special officers. At the present time, the officers include a chairman, secretary, technician, student-instructor, and film director for the staff. The chairman supervises and co-ordinates the activities of the staff, checks attendance, and files information of film projection. The secretary records the periods, the teachers for whom the material is to be shown, rooms where the films are to be used, and the titles of the films, so that each operator may plan his work and arrange the films in the correct order for the next class period. The members meet every morning during the home-room period in order to plan and co-ordinate the day's work as outlined by the secretary, and to discuss the special techniques to be used in projecting the different films.

The technician tests and services the projectors at the beginning of each school day. Careful checking and proper handling of equipment has become very important since more than a mile of film is now shown every day by the school's motion-picture department. The film director for the staff checks all incoming film shipments, prepares the reels for projection and the films for re-shipment to the distribution centers from which they were rented. Many of the members of the staff have asked to serve in this office since it provides practical training for business.

The student-instructor is responsible for organizing and supervising the training of new members. The first part of the instruction includes practical training in the care of machines, "setting up," threading, and "taking down" projection equipment and screens, diagnosis and rapid repair of mechanical difficulties, splicing and re-winding of films, and filling out of essential records. As soon as the candidates have mastered the fundamentals, they are permitted to observe projection for classes and later to operate the equipment for class work under the supervision of a regular staff member. The candidates are admitted to full membership after they have passed time-tests on the handling and repair of equipment and have successfully demonstrated their ability to project for different kinds of classes.

Information on the outstanding ways in which visual aids help in the study of different subjects has been reviewed as the staff progressed with its work and changed in its membership. The student form of management has been continued, every suggestion and criticism being recorded and considered by committees. The combined experiences and ideas of the various staff members have contributed an effective course for training new operators, a simplified and improved set of record forms, and increasingly efficient methods of projecting for classes. This has resulted in an organization, proud of its past and present accomplishments, that is ready to serve the school at all times.

CONCLUSIONS

The approval of teachers and pupils alike of the work of the staff along with a large increase in the use of different visual materials provided conclusive evidence that the services of the projectionist staff added to the effectiveness of visual aids. Several educational products resulted for the staff members from their participation in the activities of the student-operated department of visual aids. Some of these results are:

1. *Added feeling of responsibility and desire to be of service*

The boys became increasingly critical concerning the quality of their work. They voluntarily came after school to make minor adjustments and aid with work that would facilitate projection.

2. *Increased feeling of self-reliance*

Many of the boys reported that for the first time they were able to "keep their heads, think clearly and act with efficiency when in a jam" (examples: film breaking, lamp burning out, fuse blowing during projection for class work).

3. *Development of motion picture appreciation (evaluation)*

A number of the boys developed the habit of critically estimating the probable worth of entertainment films before deciding to show them. The reason given was: "many of the Hollywood films seem a waste of time after seeing the worth-while things at school."

4. *Opportunity to increase knowledge and general cultural background*

Educational films are obtained for use in practically all of the different courses in the secondary school. It soon became apparent that the members of the staff appreciated the opportunity that this material afforded since they requested the privilege of cutting short their lunch periods and staying after school in order to see the films that they had not been scheduled to project. Many of the members likewise shortened their lunch periods and remained after school to see certain films a second or third time because they had not understood part of the material, and wished to know more about it. Last June several of the senior-staff members won university scholarships through competitive examinations. They stated that the wide range of films that they had projected aided them a great deal in passing the comprehensive type of tests.

A Social Mechanics Period

W. W. CROW

Principal, Union High School, Tracy, California

What *are* some of the mechanics which every ninth-grade pupil should develop and learn to use in order to make himself more socially effective? How can a specific time be provided for assemblies, meetings, and activities, so that they will not interfere with and complicate the regular school program of studies? These were the questions which the principal and the faculty of Tracy Union High School asked itself four years ago, in view of inaugurating a period which might stress development of social factors, and at the same time provide time in which to schedule activities.

The social mechanics period for ninth-grade pupils which was worked out as a result of a study of these questions, is an example of modern ideas and philosophies of education. In the first place, the basic assumptions are to recognize the pupils' achievements, to help them capitalize upon their assets, and to give them directed opportunities to lessen or to eradicate their deficiencies. In the second place, attitudes, ideals, and appreciations are considered as means to greater social effectiveness, and the development of them is a primary aim. In the third place, subject-matter barriers are broken down, and a fusion of material from several phases of human experience forms the fundamental content for the period. Fourth, work in activities and organizations is given a definite place in the school day, so that activities may be more centralized and controlled, and so that they may achieve their purpose in the pupils' school life more effectually. Lastly, the promotion of good citizenship is assumed to be of sufficient importance to have definite instruction devoted to this end, a class period which receives the same recognition as more restricted and specialized subject-matter fields.

ADMINISTRATION

In order to reach these aims, which were determined in faculty meetings as desirable ones for the period, it was decided to begin with the ninth-grade pupils. A half-hour preceding the noon recess was designated as the social mechanics period. In that period, the pupils meet with their advisors and pursue a definitely-planned course of study. Ten credits a year are awarded for passing grades in this subject, the same number as for all other regularly scheduled subjects in the program of studies. This amount of credit is a school graduation requirement of all ninth-grade pupils.

Pupils are assigned alphabetically, regardless of sex, to advisors. Monday and Tuesday, by faculty decision, have been set aside as free from interruptions, and attendance upon social mechanics is required of all pupils. Thus, no activities are regularly scheduled for those days. However, on the other days of the week, pupils who have kept up in their work may be excused to take part in other activities, such as music, intramural sports,

and committee and organization meetings, which may be scheduled during this period. The social mechanics class does not meet as such when there is an assembly or a ninth-grade class meeting.

The four ninth-grade advisors meet regularly once a week to discuss the work for this period, and as many other times as are necessary. As a result, each advisor is aware of what the others are doing and the sections are kept more or less parallel in their work.

One quarter of the school year is devoted mainly to each of the following units: orientation, spelling, safety, and manners and conduct. In order to integrate and articulate the main work of each quarter with that of other quarters, it is never considered that any one unit is either to be finished or waiting for consideration in the future. Thus, for example, the orientation unit is followed by frequent school-information quizzes and planning of the complete secondary-school program for each pupil; the spelling unit is anticipated by a pre-test given at the beginning of the school year and followed by weekly spelling drills in the third and fourth quarters, as well as by eliminations for and participation in the school's oral spelling contest, and the awarding of certificates in freshmen meetings to those who pass the school's spelling test. The safety unit is prepared for by discussions of school fire drill and safety regulations at the first of the school year, by the presence in each room of safety posters which are changed weekly, and by the finding of the locations of fire extinguishers in the school plant by the pupils. The manners and conduct unit proves to be the culmination of the work by the inclusion of a citizenship grade which forms a regular part of the total grade for social mechanics at each marking period, and by praising and discussing, whatever appropriate because of current activities and events, manifestations of good citizenship, manners, and conduct.

Freshmen meetings and gatherings have been made special projects of social mechanics classes. During the first quarter, when orientation to the school is stressed, mimeographed unit sheets on parliamentary procedure are used as the basis for class work. Each section elects its own officers, who preside over meetings of the smaller groups. Before each meeting scheduled on the school calendar, practice meetings are held. Plans are discussed in the smaller groups and recommendations are made so that the actual meetings may display more nearly the correct procedure. Participation of as large as possible a number of the pupils in all the meetings is encouraged and planned for, and extra credit is given for such participation.

EVALUATION

Because good citizenship is a paramount aim of social mechanics, the pupils are graded not only for achievement in subject matter but also for citizenship displayed in all phases of the class work, such as participation in section and group meetings, conduct in assemblies, payment of class dues, and service on committees. There is no specific ratio of importance for these factors, because each teacher is deemed to be the best judge of the total achievement of her pupils. Thus, flexibility is given for proper consideration of individual cases; and at the same time, desirable standards are set up.

ORIENTATION TO THE SCHOOL

One of the most difficult problems that pupils coming to the secondary school have to face is adapting themselves to their new environment. Therefore, the unit on orientation is the first assignment (first quarter) given in social mechanics. The purpose of this unit is to enable them to make this adjustment with the least possible waste of time and energy.

The unit in orientation includes the study of the immediate problems of learning facts about the buildings and the grounds. It also includes data about faculty members: their names, the subjects they teach, the rooms they occupy. The pupils learn to spell the names of the teachers, to address them correctly, and to consult them for special information. They discover what to do when tardy or absent, when the fire bell rings, or when detained between classes. Later in the quarter, the unit also develops the curriculum offerings, the opportunities for social activities and for honors, the use of the library, and the history and traditions of the school.

The advisor of each section provides time for individual guidance, in addition to supervising definite assignments, individual projects, and class discussions of daily problems. Guidance, after all, is the most helpful thing ninth-grade pupils can receive in solving the problem of finding themselves in their new environment.

SPELLING

The school's spelling examination, passing of which is required for graduation, has been placed in the second quarter of the ninth year. Because spelling is a tool subject, competence in it should be acquired as early as possible in the first year of the secondary school if the pupil is to receive the full benefit of his work. In order to give everyone an opportunity to pass the test sometime during his ninth year, the test is given four times; once during each quarter. At present the test consists of 313 common words prepared by faculty members. Pupils, in order to pass, must miss no more than twenty words.

All ninth-grade pupils are given a preliminary chance to pass the spelling test at the beginning of the school year. Those who pass at that time are excused from further spelling examinations. Words are studied not only for spelling, but also for pronunciation, parts of speech, syllabication, meaning, and correct usage. Numerous tests and drills are given throughout the quarter, and the final test is the climax of this phase of study.

SAFETY EDUCATION

The unit in safety education studied in the third quarter has been formed to cover safe practices while one is being a pedestrian, riding a bicycle, engaging in sports activities or flying a kite, and preventing and extinguishing fires. The principal concrete objectives of this unit in safety are to create an awareness of the need for techniques of safe living, especially in the four phases of the pupils' life mentioned above; to promote knowledge of state and local regulations which aim to control, for safety's sake,

these phases; to ensure knowledge of regulations affecting bicycle riders; to assure knowledge of school fire-drill regulations; to guarantee knowledge of the locations of fire extinguishers in the school plant.

Preparation of the pupils for this unit is begun during the first quarter of the school year, and supplementary activities are engaged in during the second quarter. First, the faculty chairman of the school safety committee meets with all bicycle riders in school to discuss with them the problems of traffic and of parking on the school grounds. One of these pupils is elected to represent the bicycle riders on the school-safety council. The bicyclists themselves formulate and agree to abide by rules and regulations which the safety council subsequently enforce. Next, the pupils are told the number of fire extinguishers to be found on the school grounds. They are then directed to find the locations of the extinguishers and to mark them on diagrams of the school plant. These charts are discussed in class, corrected, and handed back for re-checking. Later, a check-up test is given. Also, fire drills are held during different periods, so that the pupils might be accustomed to conditions at various times of the day. Then, too, at a meeting of ninth-grade pupils participation in the solution and government of the hall traffic problem is invited, and a discussion of its implications is held. In addition, monthly reports of accidents which have necessitated either a doctor's or a teacher's care, or absence from school, are made and discussed.

The principal technique used in this unit is the problem method. The attention of the pupil is brought, in the mimeographed unit each possesses, to problems connected with the above-mentioned phases of their lives. Each situation and its implications are discussed; evidence and material additional to that of the unit are brought in and analyzed; the problem is formulated; and solutions are proposed.

Portions of the California Motor Vehicle Code which pertain to bicycle and pedestrian traffic are studied carefully. Other material comes from pupils' experiences, periodicals, and pamphlets which are available. Some sections work on codes for the bicycle riders, others on codes for pedestrians, and some consult available local and state officers for pertinent information.

The most used method is that of oral discussion. However, this is varied by oral and silent reading of the material, followed up by fact quizzes many times. Writing of themes and essays is utilized as a device to promote pupil thought and reaction to the generalities of the subject matter. Conferences and interviews are employed to obtain information outside the classroom. Projects, such as the making of maps, charts and diagrams, notebooks, collections of clippings, and original writing are also used. These classes have also adopted the project of presenting a panel discussion concerning bicycling as a part of the safety assembly program in the spring.

MANNERS AND CONDUCT

The aim of this unit given in the last quarter of the school year is to develop in the pupils the desire for personal improvement and to help them learn and apply principles which govern their social acceptability. It

is a natural sequel to the work on safety, for courtesy is merely another manifestation of the process of orientation to the world outside the textbook atmosphere of school.

Work in the unit covers the courteous individual, good manners at the dance, in public, and in classrooms and assemblies, introductions, table manners, invitations, and refreshments. Pupils are given mimeographed units covering these topics, which are read and discussed in class. Practice exercises are carried out, with performance stressed as much as possible, so that the pupils may truly learn by doing. The general principles of courtesy are emphasized, rather than any complicated forms. After each division of the unit has been thoroughly studied, an objective test is given. A final test covers the whole unit.

CONCLUSION

Several points have come out as a result of experience in teaching and revising this subject. These might prove helpful to other secondary schools working on or contemplating the introduction of such a course.

1. Consideration must be given to the type of student body one is dealing with before even preliminary plans are made.
2. Consideration must be given to the problem of providing opportunities for various types of activities and experiences which the pupils might not encounter in any other part of their school program.
3. Care must be taken in the selection of teachers.
4. Consideration must be given to the matter of the length of periods and the scope of the pupils course.
5. Consideration should be given to the question, is other such instruction to be given in the remaining three years of the secondary school, so that it will be a true core.

One significant outcome of this work has been the achievement of a balance between school activities and class work. Since activities have been restricted to certain days of the week and to a specified period each day, organizations, clubs, and committees have been better organized and defined. They all have been able to carry out their purposes much better than before.

Perhaps the most important of all the results of the inauguration of social mechanics has been the development of co-operation among all members of the faculty. Without this backing, it would have been doomed before it was begun. Reports are made regularly in faculty meetings, and suggestions from any teacher are always welcomed and requested. The teachers are all enthusiastic about their work, and they exert special energy to make the period a profitable one. Naturally, this has built up a fine "esprit de corps" among them and among the rest of the faculty.

EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

Calendar

October

- 3-4 Fifth Annual Clinic on Education, Winfield, Kansas. Information can be secured from Evan E. Evans, Superintendent of Schools, Winfield, Kansas.
- 5-11 National Fire Prevention Week.
- 6-10 The Thirtieth Annual Meeting of the National Safety Congress and Exposition, Chicago, Ill.
- 8 Philadelphia Suburban Secondary-School Principals Association's Annual Dinner Meeting, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.
- 23-24 Annual meeting of The New Mexico Branch of The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Albuquerque, N. M.
- 30-31 Pennsylvania Branch of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. Education Building, Harrisburg, Pennsylvania.

November

- 2-8 National Book Week. Information and material may be secured from Book Week Headquarters, 62 West 45th Street, New York City.
- 9-15 American Education Week. Manuals for each of the four levels of education, kindergarten to senior high school, can be secured from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D. C., fifty cents for the set.
- 13-15 The Southern Conference on Audio-Visual Education, Atlanta, Georgia, Amsley Hotel.
- 20-22 National Council for the Social Sciences Annual Meeting in Indianapolis, Indiana. Information from the Council, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.
- 20-22 Thirty-first Annual Meeting of the National Council of Teachers of English in Atlanta, Georgia. Headquarters, Biltmore Hotel. Information from the Council, 211 West 68th Street, Chicago, Illinois.

December

- 3-5 Fifth Annual School Broadcast Conference and Citations for Outstanding School Radio Programs, Chicago, Illinois.
- 10-13 Annual Convention of the American Vocational Association, Boston, Massachusetts.

February

- 21-26 The Twenty-sixth Annual Winter Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, San Francisco, California. Headquarters Hotel, St. Francis.
- 21-26 Annual Convention of the American Association of School Administrators, San Francisco, California.

March

- 6-7 North Texas State Teachers Association Convention, Dallas, Texas. Theme: *Educating for Richer Ways of Living.*

News Notes

PHONOGRAPH ENGINEERING AIDS THE CLASSROOM: The "Magic Brain" with the Tandem Tone Arm, a revolutionary new type of automatic record changer which plays both sides of phonograph records without turning them over, has recently been perfected in the RCA research laboratories. The "Magic Brain" mechanism eliminates the use of old-fashioned needles, since a jewel sapphire point is used, extends the life of records indefinitely, and provides better tone quality. The new unit, available in 1942 RCA Victrola phonograph-radio Model V-225, is ideal for school use. When the "Magic Brain" automatic record changer is used, music appreciation classes move smoothly without pause for changing or turning records. The instrument plays records for any time up to two hours at the touch of a button. It may be used to reproduce a whole symphony without interruption, or to play different types of music for contrast. It finds ready use in every department of the modern school where phonograph or radio reproduction is used.

INCREASE IN SECONDARY-SCHOOL ENROLMENTS CONTINUES—According to Dr. Studebaker, United States Commissioner of Education, the secondary schools of the nation this school year will open with an estimated enrolment of 7,334,000. This is 100,000 more than the enrolment for the 1940-41 school term. It is estimated that during this school year there will be over 2,000,000 pupils attending part-time and evening schools, private trade schools, business colleges, and nurse training institutions. It is likewise estimated that colleges will see an increase in enrolment of approximately 25,000, reaching the all-time peak of 1,450,000. This latter figure, however, is somewhat uncertain because of the need for people in the armed services and defense industries. An anticipated decline in elementary enrolment tends to alleviate the past years' demand for new school buildings. This decrease in elementary enrolment has been progressively advancing toward the secondary-school years due to the low birth rate from 1930-1938. In all probabilities within the next year or so, this effect will be shown in the secondary-school years by a decrease in the numbers of pupils attending. It is estimated that the elementary school enrolment will decline 210,000, thus making an enrolment in the elementary schools of approximately 29,707,000. The total school enrolment in all three spans shows a decline of approximately 160,000;—from 31,726,000 in the school year 1940-41 to 31,566,000 estimated this year.

WHAT DO WE DO WITH THE GIFTED PUPIL?—There seems to be a vague belief that the gifted can get along anyway; that they should not be given special education because it is not democratic. And there is perhaps a latent fear that they will use their fine abilities for their own selfish purposes. Yet it is precisely this group of individuals of great ability, who in the long run and as a group will be the least selfish, the least likely to monopolize the good things in this world, and by their inventions and discoveries, by their creative work in the arts, by their contributions to government and social reform, by their activities in all fields will in the future help humanity in its groping struggle upward toward a better civilization.—Article by Rudolph Pintner entitled *Superior Ability*, pages 407-419. *Teachers College Record*, published by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. February, 1941.

LATIN AMERICAN BIBLIOGRAPHIES—The Spring and the Summer 1941 issues of the *Inter American Bibliographical Review*, the quarterly publication of the Inter-American Bibliographical and Library Association of Washington, D. C., contains two excellent bibliographies prepared by authorities on Latin American relations. One on books is by A. C. Wilgus and the other on magazine articles is by K. C. Wade. The quarterly published by the Educational Research Bureau, 1321 M Street, N. W., Washington, D. C., is available for five dollars a year.

RAILROADS IN THE HISTORY OF THE U. S.—The Association of American Railroads, Washington, D. C., have available for free distribution for school library use a number of excellent pamphlets and mimeographed monographs. Some of these include *Growth of Railway Mileage in the U. S.*, *List of Principal Railroads in the U. S.*, a *Yearbook of Railroad Information*, a bibliography of *Railway Literature for Young People*, a bibliography on *Railroad History and Sources of Historical Information About Railroads*, and a bibliography of 204 motion pictures owned by or relating to the American railroads. Of the list of M. P. films more than half of these are available for free use of clubs, schools, parent-teacher associations, church organizations, and other groups. All of this material will be found most helpful in making related units of history vital and real to pupils in the secondary school.

STATE NAUTICAL SCHOOLS—Four states—California, Massachusetts, New York, and Pennsylvania—maintain nautical schools, aided by Federal grants. Congress in the fiscal year 1941 appropriated \$190,000 for these schools. Massachusetts and Pennsylvania admit only residents of those states; the other two admit persons from outside the State, but at a higher tuition rate. For training at sea, usually four months of each year, these schools use Federal training ships controlled by the U. S. Maritime Commission. Students must be 17 to 21 years of age (22 in New York), and meet physical requirements comparable to those of the U. S. Naval Academy. Length of the course is three years. Costs given below are approximate, for three-year periods, and cover tuition, food, quarters, books, and some items of uniform.

California Maritime Academy, San Francisco. Cost: residents, \$923, non-residents, \$1,748. This academy offers graduates bachelor of science degrees. Massachusetts Nautical School, Boston Navy Yard. Cost, \$600. New York State Merchant Marine Academy, Fort Schuyler. Cost: residents, \$1,063; non-residents, \$2,263. Pennsylvania State Nautical School, Philadelphia Navy Yard. Cost, \$250. Applications or requests for information should be addressed to secretaries of the respective schools.

LEISURE, RECREATION, AND YOUNG PEOPLE—The impoverished recreational and leisure-time life of young America, in spite of such facilities as 20,000 motion picture theaters, 17,000 daily radio programs, 6,000 public libraries, 1,395 state-owned outdoor recreation areas, and 200,000 acres of national parks and forests, is delineated in *Time On Their Hands: A Report on Leisure, Recreation and Young People*, made to the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C., (1941, 267 pp., \$2.00).

Time on Their Hands examines the needs of youth in the light of the new meaning of recreation which has grown out of such important social changes as technological developments, the growth of commercial recreation, the ac-

cessibility of urban amusements to village and rural youth, and the prolonged economic dependency of young people. In addition, "recreational opportunities and desires have been influenced by changes in religious views concerning the use of leisure, by changes in conception of activities suitable for women, and by changes in standards of living."

Certain fundamental beliefs are set forth by the authors: They are: 1. that in all recreational planning for youth the determining factor should be the needs of young people themselves rather than the functional structure of existing agencies; 2. that the greatest possible use should be made of existing facilities and the fullest measure of co-ordination be effected among them; 3. that broad-scale recreational planning is urgently required at every level of recreational administration—community, state, and national government.

Perhaps the most important fact about public recreation programs is that there are so few of them. Numerically they are a poor third among the means employed by society in its effort to guide the uses to which people put their leisure. The United States has 25,000 public high schools and 6,000 public libraries, but the number of communities reporting public recreation service is barely 1,300, serving less than one-fifth of our population. Of communities from 5,000 to 10,000 population less than one in four has its own program of public recreation. The National Recreation Association has set a standard of \$3 per capita for services ordinarily provided by a municipal recreation department plus such other services as maintenance of general park areas, operation of museums, and provision of special events. In 1937 the standard was reached by only two of the 94 cities of 100,000 or more. The average per capita expenditure for this whole group of cities was only \$1.54.

The National Resources Planning Board recommends that municipalities of more than 10,000 population provide a minimum of one acre of park space for each 100 inhabitants. Yet throughout the country in 1930 there was an average of 208 persons to each acre of park space—in communities having parks. However, in 268 selected cities there was an acre of park available to an average of only 64 persons, showing that the recommended standard is not unreasonable.

The authors do not underestimate the importance of the private agencies which promote a host of leisure-time enterprises. Nearly a quarter of all community chest funds, it is estimated, are used for some kind of leisure service. The Federal Government has the responsibility for the national planning of recreation. A Federal subsidy to states to assist them in their attempt to conduct recreation programs is recommended by the authors. This subsidy could take the form of aid in education, in health activities, in extension of library services, and in such services as consultation, advice, research, demonstration, and other forms of promotion. The state has a clear obligation to come to the assistance of the local communities, "since towns and counties and cities are the political creations of the state."

MANY COMMUNITY COUNCILS IN STATE—One hundred forty-six cities in Michigan have community councils according to a tabulation recently made by the Department of Public Instruction. This information was taken from the 1940-41 self-survey blanks sent in by 555 of the school districts maintaining approved secondary schools.

AN AID TO REMOVE INTOLERANCE—Fifteen years ago the *Service Bureau for Intercultural Education*, 300 Fourth Avenue, New York City, was conceived by a group of foresighted educators to combat the problems of inter-group friction and social intolerance. The Bureau is a non-profit consultant institute offering a constructive approach to these problems. It aims to develop mutual understanding among the youths of various culture groups as a basis for their co-operation. It fosters an appreciation of the part each has played and can continue to play in making America. It also seeks to awaken a sense of common adventure among Americans of many antecedents and to promote American unity through loyalty to democratic ideals and practices. No particular nationality, no single "race," no special religious group has been selected for favored attention. The Service Bureau concerns itself with every human element which belongs to a great country dedicated to the right of individuals and groups to seek life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. It affords guidance, based on years of study and experimentation, to teachers and community leaders who recognize the necessity of intercultural education.

School principals and teachers may join for a \$2.00 membership fee. Thus members receive the Bureau's bulletin (bi-monthly), selective materials from the Bureau's list of publications, including culture-group pamphlets, school manuals, intercultural programs and bibliographies, and counsel by mail with reference to local problems and methods of intercultural education.

CONSUMER EDUCATION COURSE—The West Seattle High School of Seattle, Washington, offers to junior and senior a one-semester course in *Buymanship*. From two to three sections of approximately thirty-five pupils each have been taught each semester for the past three years. It is one of the six subjects accepted for a major in social studies. The three main divisions in the course are Choice Marketing, an attempt to change, modify, and strengthen the pupil's ideas of his needs and desires; Market Selection, an attempt to train the buyer so that he gets the right quality at the lowest price with the minimum of time and effort; and Economic Organization, an attempt to give to the pupils an idea of how our economic system operates or fails to operate and to develop in him a strong emotional urge to use facts to the best interest of society. Some of the units within these major divisions are the distribution of the national income, the consumer technique of buying, advertising, government grading and inspection, informative and grade labeling, personal finance and family budgeting, consumer credit, how to buy insurance, and how to buy a home. Basic buying principles, applicable to any buying situation, are stressed rather than comparable qualities of specific commodities.

John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, announces that Exchange of secondary-school teachers between the United States and the other American Republics is limited at the present time. Within the past several months numerous inquiries have reached the U. S. Office of Education from secondary-school teachers in the United States regarding the possibility of obtaining teaching positions in the other Republics. At the same time many teachers from other American Republics are seeking information regarding possible openings for teachers of Spanish and Portuguese in this country. At the present time no general interchange of secondary-school teachers between the United States and the other American Republics appears to be feasible. Some interchange is taking place, and a much more extensive program of ex-

changes should and will take place in the future, but these exchanges will need to be worked out carefully beforehand by the proper authorities in the United States and in the other Republics. Dr. Studebaker states that consideration is being given to the possibilities of a system of exchanges between teachers in the United States and the other American Republics and to the various problems connected with such an exchange. Until such time as a plan can be worked out and announced, teachers both in the United States and in the other Republics should know that such opportunities are quite limited.

PLANNING THE FALL FACULTY MEETING—The News of the Week, a publication of the Department of Public Instruction, Lansing, Michigan, gives these following suggestions to the principal or superintendent of a school. "The first faculty meeting for the new school year should have as its purposes the planning of the school program and the orientation of teachers new to the school system. Suggested objectives for such a meeting are: 1. To carry the general study of education further, 2. To define the year's plan of operation, 3. To gather and arrange materials of instruction, 4. To put into action the plan of operation, and 5. To introduce new teachers to procedures of the system.

SAFEGUARDING THE RIGHTS OF TEACHERS—In view of the current investigation by a State Legislative committee of alleged subversive activities in the schools of New York City, more than 100 clergymen from 21 states have signed a petition to the Board of Higher Education to accept a statement of principles on rights of teachers which asserts that "punitive action because of personal beliefs or legal political activity is inconsistent with the very principles of democracy." The statement demands that all charges of incompetence and illegal or propagandist activity be proved by "recognized legal procedure." In these days of war hysteria it is certainly an art to remain calm and just in our judgments. And it is eminently Christian not to join in a hue and cry raised by unproved suspicions or malicious propaganda designed to make it uncomfortable for those who dare to express opinions which seem to be at variance with our own. It is odd, isn't it, that some people who are most vociferous in cursing dictators in other countries are at the same time so disposed to act the part of dictators in our own country.—The Messenger of the Evangelical and Reformed Church, May, 1941.

THE NORTH CAROLINA STATE CUMULATIVE RECORD FORM—Through the initiative of the State Department of Public Instruction a cumulative record form for grades 1-12 has been developed during the last year by a committee of 13 members. A manual, explaining its use, has been printed to accompany the form. The form is of the durable manila folder type of record which will fit standard letter-size filing cabinets. The form is composed of sixteen different sections for the entry of data under these headings. The divisions for which space is provided are family history, elementary-school progress, secondary-school progress, evaluation of social and personal assets, extra-curricular activities, standardized test record, school record attendance, use of the library, withdrawal record, re-entry record, physical examinations, graduation facts, photograph, follow-up record, pupil interests and significant observations and recommendations. The form, while comprehensive, is not too cumbersome as to militate against wide use. Even the small school that claims it does not have time to keep the complete record of each of its pupils can find no excuse for not using this form for the entry of at least that significant data which any school must of necessity keep.

W.P.A. Clerical Assistance Project was secured to help install these records. The initial project was set up for \$51,000.00 from Federal funds and was renewed for an additional \$75,000.00. More than 135 workers were employed on this project. These clerical assistants traveled from school to school. They filled out an intermediate work sheet, one for each pupil in the school, from information provided by the principal and the teachers. After this was approved by the principal it was copied in ink on the permanent form.

URGES PROMPT ENLARGEMENT OF LATIN-AMERICAN STUDIES—An urgent appeal to American schools to aid the total defense of this hemisphere by "prompt enlargement" of study of Latin-American countries is urged by John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education. He believes that "Adequate defense must be hemispheric, and it must be total—immediate and long-range—military, economic, and educational. Continued peace in the Western Hemisphere demands greater knowledge and understanding among the people of North and South America. In United States schools the study of Latin-American countries needs prompt enlargement."

He urges immediate adoption of three steps to make possible a wide field of studies on Latin America in American schools this fall. First, schools might plan to form a unit on Latin America in social-studies courses, running from 6 weeks in elementary schools to a semester in secondary schools. Such a course not only would utilize maps, news sources and books, but would also be related to English, music, art and other subjects. Second, school officials can assign teachers to such subjects so that they may be prepared for the course by special study or travel in Latin America. Third, superintendents might set up a faculty committee to correlate arts and crafts, music, literature, and other subjects with Latin-American emphasis, to provide special assembly programs, and to use visual aids.

REMEDIAL READING AND ARITHMETIC PROGRAM—The New York City Board of Education has since 1934 been promoting this project in co-operation with the Federal Government. The project was the result of a growing recognition of the paramount importance of reading and arithmetic in the education of the school pupil and of the maladjustment that results especially from reading failures. It attempts also to reduce truancy and other behavior problems and maladjustments through the diagnosis and connection of specific deficiencies and disabilities. While primarily of an elementary nature and confined in most of the years of its conduct to the years of the elementary school it has now had its influence and effect upon the secondary school.

In 1936 the application of the materials and methods developed was begun under active classroom situations. This material not only includes instruction and assistance for the classroom teacher but also actual problems and readings for the pupil based upon those things about which the pupil of a given age has some information and has had experience. This U. S. Work Projects Administration has also prepared and published bulletins on *New Aids and Materials for Teaching, Lip-Reading and Supervisor's Guide—Summer Play Schools Program*. Recently the Board of Education through this program sponsored a comprehensive survey of Reading Achievement in grades 6B, 8B, 9B, and a rapid advancing group.

STATE COUNCILS ON RURAL LIFE AND EDUCATION—The organization of state councils on rural life and education to be composed of key representatives of state-wide agencies with education programs is proposed by *The Committee on Rural Education*, 600 South Michigan Avenue, Chicago, in a special bulletin. The Committee, which is affiliated with the AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION and supported by the FARM FOUNDATION, calls attention to "destructive forces at work" tending seriously to handicap efforts of rural people to achieve a satisfactory life on the land. Such destructive factors are the increase of farm tenancy, soil exhaustion through erosion and depletion of fertility, the steady loss of equity in the land, and the inability of rural youth to find an economic place either in the country or the city.

The organization of state councils is recommended as an initial step in the diagnosis of problems of rural education in the various states, and the development of appropriate lines of action which will strengthen not only the school itself, but the other social institutions of the countryside as well. Education as conceived by the Committee must comprehend more than the school alone. It must consider the entire community. To date, Illinois and Oklahoma have organized such councils and have made material progress.

THE RADIO IN THE CLASSROOM—So that the work of the individual teacher who is making use of radio programs in her classroom may become known to other teachers using the same or different programs, the SCHOOL BROADCAST CONFERENCE at its fifth annual meeting in Chicago, December 3-5, will again grant awards and citations for outstanding examples of the use of radio programs. The awards and citations made by this conference at its fourth annual meeting have been published under the title *Utilization Practices*. All entries must be made not later than November 1. The entries winning citations will be edited and published early in 1942. Thus programs now on the air will be made available to the teachers at large.

A description of the utilization procedure found most valuable should be organized around the pre-broadcast and post-broadcast classroom activities as follows: (a) Describe in not more than 100 words the approach to the inclusion of the broadcast in the class schedule. (b) Describe as briefly and as completely as possible the assimilation and integration (follow-up activities) of the program. All entries must be submitted typed on one side of 8½ by 11 paper. Handbook page or paragraph describing the broadcast used must accompany the entry. All entries should be submitted to the Information Editor, Room 701, 228 N. La Salle Street, Chicago, Illinois.

NBC LATIN-AMERICAN NEIGHBOR RADIO SERIES—THE NATIONAL BROADCASTING COMPANY has launched a new kind of dramatic Latin American program, *Good Neighbors*, on its Red Network, Thursday, May 22, from 9:30 to 10:00 P. M., EST. The series, which will run for twenty-two weeks is built around a dramatization of a notable incident or a great personality in each of the twenty Latin-American republics. A sixty-piece orchestra plays compositions of the best Latin-American composers. Each program is dedicated to a particular country and pictures that country dramatically through authentic material from its archives and contemporary life. Through these programs NBC hopes to bring to the people of the United States the colorful aspects of the history, culture, life and progressive modern spirit of the peoples of Central and South America.

PUPIL PROGRESS—Approximately two-thirds of the pupils in the public schools of Pennsylvania advance at the normal rate. The actual figures for 1939-1940 show that 31.2 per cent were retarded one or more years in their school work and that more than a half million boys and girls are not keeping step with the normal school procession.

CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE BUILDS DEFENSE—A 62-page selected bibliography of available pamphlet materials relating to consumer education and to various specific consumer problems entitled, *Consumer Knowledge Builds Defense* has been issued as Bulletin No. 11, April, 1941, by the Consumer Division, National Defense Commission, Washington, D. C. Copies are available free upon request.

EDUCATION AND NATIONAL DEFENSE—How the Nation's public schools can contribute to national preparedness in the field of home nursing is outlined in a pamphlet the U. S. Office of Education is distributing to educators, librarians, and Government officials. It is the first in a series the Office will print under this title. John W. Studebaker, U. S. Commissioner of Education, in commenting on this educational problem said, "As the pace of national defense quickens trained nurses will be called into Army, Navy, and industrial service. Although 190,000 girls annually receive in public schools some training in home nursing as part of their preparation for intelligent homemaking, many more women with more intensive training of this character will be needed in the home lines of defense in times of emergency. Previous emergencies have shown this need. It will be up to the homemakers of the country to shoulder much responsibility in the care of minor illness and injury. Preparation for this responsibility is becoming increasingly available in the Nation's public schools through courses in home nursing or home hygiene, sections of the home economics programs, evening classes for adult homemakers, and Red Cross courses in schools. Schools are recognizing the role they can play in preserving and safeguarding the Nation's health and fitness."

Examples of required courses in home hygiene and care of the sick, home hygiene teaching in small rural secondary schools, and home hygiene as a unit in home economics courses now in operation are cited in the pamphlet. Outlines of objectives, curriculum, and operation of these courses are given. Also discussed are vocational aspects of home nursing, such as: training practical nurses, attendants, ward helpers, orderlies, nursing attendants, etc. The problem of maintaining high standards and in some cases raising training standards for these workers is outlined. Examples are given of vocational schools in which preparatory courses for training nursing attendants are being conducted. Suggestions on setting up training courses for nurses' aides and a bibliography on home nursing and vocational guidance in nursing conclude the publication. Copies of this pamphlet entitled, *Home Nursing Courses in High Schools*, pamphlet No. 9, are available from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D. C., at 15 cents each. Another pamphlet in this Defense Series costing 15 cents is that entitled *What the Schools Can Do*. No. 4. This provides some orientation for careful thinking on a number of educational problems and the contribution which schools can make.

The Book Column

BOOKS FOR PUPIL USE

ALPERN, H. AND MARTEL, J. *Leamos, First Spanish Reader*. New York: Oxford Book Co. 1941. 120 pp. 57c. A simple, clear, concise, authoritative textbook for beginning Spanish students.

BRYSON, LYMAN AND SMITH, KERBY. *Working for Democracy*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1941. 425 pp. A textbook in which the essential characteristics of democracy have been assembled from the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution of the United States, including the Bill of Rights, and the literature on democracy. Herein the idea is developed that democracy is a growing rather than a static ideal and that every citizen has a responsibility for seeing that the ideal democracy works more fully, more completely, and more consistently from generation to generation.

Building and Flying Model Airplanes. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co. 1941. 247 pp. \$2.00. A handbook prepared by experts for air-minded youth describing in detail every step in both the building and flying of model airplanes.

CARLSON, P. A., PRICKETT, A. L., AND FORKNER, H. L. *20th Century Bookkeeping and Accounting*. New York: South-Western Publishing Co. 1941. 532 pp. A second-year course planned to continue in logical order the further development of accounting principles and their application. It is intended for three classes of pupils: (1) those who desire a thorough knowledge of bookkeeping and accounting in order to secure and hold a business position; (2) those who plan to continue the study of accountancy as a profession; and (3) those who desire a thorough understanding of bookkeeping and accounting in preparation for managerial and executive positions in business.

COYLE, D. C. *America*. Washington, D. C.: National Home Library Foundation. 1941. 91 pp. 25 cents. Here is a small pocket-size book that not only every teacher, but also every pupil in high school should read. It might well become a very definite part of the social studies program. It is a book that every secondary-school pupil should have in his possession, as well as one that his parents will enjoy reading.

CRABBE, E. H. AND SALSGIVER, P. L. *General Business with Applied Arithmetic*. New York: South-Western Publishing Co. 1941. Fourth Edition. 726 pp. \$1.60. A textbook introducing pupils to business training in which the principles of arithmetic having a bearing on the solution of practical problems are systematically interwoven. Emphasis is placed on those generally known technical values of business information that are useful to everyone regardless of his occupational interests.

CRAMPTON, C. W. *Start Today, Your Guide to Physical Fitness*. New York: A. S. Barnes and Co. 1941. 224 pp. \$1.75. A practical book not only for teacher use but also for pupil use in which the author clearly defines physical fitness and outlines the importance of medical examination exercise, and diet.

CURTIS, C. C. *A Guide to the Trees*. New York: Greenberg. 1941. 208 pp. \$1.50. Describes in clear, accurate, understandable terms every variety of tree in the area from Virginia west to Colorado, and then north to the Arctic Circle. It has a glossary and more than 200 illustrations, together with a short key by means of which any tree may be quickly classified.

DAVEY, M. A., SMITH, E. M., AND MYERS, T. R. *Everyday Occupations*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1941. 372 pp. \$1.68. Familiarizes the pupil with the range of occupations within the various broad classifications of work; arouses his interest in the large areas of work; gives him an understanding of the social interdependence of workers; and guides him to a wise choice among the varied curriculums offered by the modern school.

DOOLEY, W. H. AND KRIEGER, DAVID. *New Vocational Mathematics for Boys*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1941. 349 pp. \$1.64. A textbook which gives real regard for the needs of pupils in present and later activities, for correlation with other school subjects and for general and specific vocational training. The problems used are actual life situations.

FALK, NAT. *How to Make Animated Cartoons*. New York: Foundation Books, 105 West 40th Street, 1941. 79 pp. \$1.49. This book is a source of information interestingly written about the techniques of animation in pictures and cartoons. People see these pictures, enjoy them, and go on wondering how drawings can be made to move and act and to do all sorts of impossible things. This book attempts to dispel the mystery and to show how to make animated cartoons. Today there are seven cartoon studios, turning out about two-hundred pictures a year, combined these employ 2,500 people in all the various jobs connected with the making of animated cartoons. The book includes the history of animated cartoon.

FAST, HOWARD. *Haym Salomon, Son of Liberty*. New York: Julian Messner, Inc. 1941. 243 pp. \$2.50. The story of a businessman who was a great American patriot as well as the story of some of the things that lay behind the American Revolution. It is a section of history—a story never before fully told for young people—which helps to define for them the ingredients which went into the making of America.

FOSTER, WILLIAM AND ALYEA, H. N. *An Introduction to General Chemistry*. Second Edition. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 250 Fourth Avenue. 1941. 790 pp. \$3.75. A comprehensive general chemistry course intended primarily for the beginning college student or the secondary-school pupil who desires a second-year course. The historical background presented and the wealth of experiments suggested should make this an excellent secondary-school reference source and also be of interest to the gifted pupils found within every class who need enrichment material.

GREGG, J. R. *Gregg Speed Studies*, Third Edition. New York: Gregg Publishing Co. 1941. 448 pp. \$1.50. This "companion book to the shorthand manual" is 40 per cent larger than the 1929 edition and contains over twice as much shorthand plate material. These new features are the presentation of practice matter in shorthand instead of in print, the development of a large and varied vocabulary through a unique plan of incorporating vocabulary drills with the work in dictation, and a series of systematic

shorthand penmanship studies for the purpose of establishing correct form and control of the basic strokes and combinations.

HACKETT, F. S. *The Touch of Life*. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1941. 118 pp. \$1.25. A book of talks given by a headmaster before his student body containing the wisdom of one who has watched with a life-time interest a never-ending procession of youth, who have in common a need for an understanding of the potentialities of life. New light on old wisdom is spread through some actual experiences. Each helps to make vivid the nourishment of what John Dewey calls the *Religious Attitude*.

HOGG, J. C. AND BICKEY, C. L. *Elementary General Chemistry*. New York: Van Nostrand Co., Inc. 1941. 603 pp. \$2.12. A textbook in which the tedium of facts for beginners in chemistry is offset by stimulating narratives. It is a challenge to the intellectual capacity of the pupils, smoothing out difficulties rather than omitting them. The first twelve chapters are discursive, diagrams are plentiful and descriptive. Each chapter is summarized. There is an abundance of experimental material. This first part may be considered as a first-year course while the second part may be used as a second-year course. The book is also designed to meet the needs of pupils who must complete their course in one year. The authors have given particular attention to the new requirements of the College Entrance Examination Board.

LEONARD, J. P. AND SALISBURY, RACHEL. *Considering the Meaning*. New York: Scott, Foresman, and Co. 1941. 448 pp. \$1.24. A textbook in which the real enthusiastic sense of the pupil, his deep need, his creative expressions, his suggestive curiosity about people and life in general, and his deep hope for facts about this world are recognized. Reading to get both ideas and the way ideas are expressed, one of the major problems of the learner and of the teacher of English, is emphasized in this book. It is one of a series of four textbooks offering a continuous program for developing literature skills. It can be used in the series or independently.

LUCE, H. R. *The American Century*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc. 1941. 89 pp. \$1.00. This book is looked upon by thousands of persons as a positive program for this country in which they can put their faith and by other thousands as a stimulus to further thought and creative effort. This appeared first as an editorial in *Life Magazine*. Published now in book form, it not only contains the original article, but also some of the comments and articles to which it has given rise. The comments are by other Americans, not all of them favorable to the author's point of view, but all of them desirous of the finest possible future for America.

McCONATHY, OSBOURNE, MORGAN, R. V., AND LINDSAY, G. L. *Music the Universal Language*. New York: Silver Burdett Co. 1941. 300 pp. \$1.92. A book that should have real appeal to the secondary-school pupil who looks upon music as a means to enjoyment and appreciation of the finer things of life. While every musician should receive thorough formal instruction in the structure and organization of music, the music lover may add greatly to his understanding and appreciation by showing a live curiosity and intelligent interest in these matters, as exemplified in the selection studied in this book.

- MERBENDAH, C. H. AND WALTERS, F. G. *Intermediate Algebra*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co. 1941. 434 pp. A second-year course designed for those pupils who are preparing themselves to do college work, for advanced courses in business or science, or for those who have developed particular liking or an interest in the subject. The contents follow the recommendations of the Report of the Joint Commission of the Mathematical Association of America, and the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics as outlined in the Council's *Fifteenth Yearbook*.
- MONTGOMERY, R. G. *Stan Ball of the Rangers*. Philadelphia: David McKay Co. 1941. 250 pp. \$1.50. A western fiction story full of action that will be enjoyed by the junior-high reader.
- NIDA, R. H. AND ADAMS, FAY. *Man, the Nature Tamer*. New York: Henry Holt and Co. 1941. 423 pp. \$1.64. An integration of history, geography, science, invention, and civics attempting to bring to the junior high-school pupil a story of the race's experience in its natural setting and human completeness, and in its relation to new fields of knowledge. The story begins with the foundation of civilization and finds its climax in the life of modern America. The authors have effectively tied in the background of race experience with present-day values.
- O'ROURKE, L. J. *Your Government, Today and Tomorrow*. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1941. 709 pp. \$1.84. A textbook which gives the pupil an appreciation of the work of his government and makes him see that in addition to acquiring an interest in, and having intelligent opinions regarding, problems of government, he can and should translate his opinions into action. The individuals relation to government has been emphasized. The use of the resources of the pupil's community is encouraged. This book embodies a projection to the senior high-school level of methods and techniques developed in the course of research and incorporated in another book of the present series, *You and Your Community*.
- PARTRIDGE, E. D. AND MOONEY, CATHERINE. *Time Out for Living*. New York: American Book Co. 1941. 662 pp. \$2.00. A book interestingly written to the millions of youth in America giving suggestions as to what they might do in their leisure time. Here is a wealth of suggestions not only for the activity sponsor, but also for the pupil himself.
- RIEMER, EDWIN. *Civil Service Training for Stenographers, Typists, and Clerks*. New York: Gregg Publishing Co. 1941. 111 pp. \$1.40. A new text for training prospective candidates for stenographic, typewriting, and clerical examinations in municipal, state, and Federal Civil Service, familiarizing them with the many different types of questions and other details in various public written examinations. A considerable amount of the material in this book was gleaned from former Civil Service examinations.
- RITCHIE, J. W. *Biology and Human Affairs*. New York: World Book Co. 1941. 1026 pp. \$2.32. The author attempts to select and arrange the material in such a way that the course as a whole will give the pupil certain important appreciations, conceptions, and attitudes. An effort has been made to develop an understanding of the methods and scope of biology and an appreciation of the importance of extending its applications to human social affairs. It is presented in terms of human living. The author

has used three methods of teaching biology as each seemed wise to him. These three methods used are the type method, the systematic or group method, and the principles method.

ROBERTS, HOLLAND AND RAND, HELEN. *Let's Read Series*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., Inc. A series of four books developed as a basic reading program out of daily classroom experiences in junior and senior high schools. The viewpoints throughout is that of meeting an individual need under conditions of teaching masses, small groups, or individual pupils. Each book is composed of stories and articles that will compel interest and relate themselves to the pupil's daily life. Book I *Reading for Experience*. 1941. 512 pp. Book II *Growing Up in Reading*. 1939. 536 pp. Book III *Reading for Life*. 1937. 600 pp. and Book IV *Reading for Work and College*. 1940. 629 pp.

SKILLING, W. T. *Tours Through the World of Science*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc. 1941. 815 pp. The material in this textbook is organized under nineteen "Tours." Ample pictures have been used to illustrate and extend the thought expressed in each tour. Experiments, demonstrations, thought questions, suggestions, have been prepared for the tour. The fiction of travel is maintained throughout the book. By means of the title, the paragraph headings are treated as road signs, and the imaginative introduction to each tour is intended as a means of stimulating interest, at an age when the imaginative faculty outranks the logical.

SNAVELY, G. D. *Choose and Use Your College*. New York: Harper & Brothers. 1941. 166 pp. \$2.00. A book written for young people and for parents who are planning the education of their children as well as for the student already in college. An excellent aid and reference to the secondary-school counselors who are confronted with such pupil questions as, Should I go to college? What college should I choose? Should I borrow money to go to college, try for a scholarship, or should I be self-supporting? What course should I take? his book deals realistically with these pupil problems.

TURNER, JOE et al. *Life Begins at Seventeen*, Lawrence, Kansas: The Witan Publications. 1941. 99 pp. \$1.00. A book written by a group of young men from their own first-hand experiences. It is written directly to the pupil in order to assist him in taking an inventory of himself and to reveal to him his weak and strong characteristics at this age. The fact that there is no attempt at preaching makes the book appealing to every boy. Two other volumes on manners are *Manners Make Men* (\$1.00) and *Lady Lore* (\$1.00).

WATSON, J. C. AND MOORE, A. Z. *On to South America*. New York: Henry Holt and Co. 1941. 176 pp. An elementary Spanish reader prepared especially for the second or third semester of beginning secondary-school classes. This book will provide the pupil with reading material suitable to his age level and to his reading experience.

WEBSTER, HUTTON AND HUSSEY, R. D. *History of Latin America*. Third Edition. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co. 1941. 326 pp. \$1.64. Heretofore we have paid little attention to the study of history of the twenty republics of Latin America. Recently our eyes are beginning to turn towards these countries.

Each day finds us becoming more and more aware of the fact that our economic and political world encompasses all the Americas instead of only the United States. This elementary book on Latin American history and civilization will be found an excellent text for secondary-school use, especially during this new era of Pan-American relations which has every evidence of permanency. The project and activity suggestions at the end of each of the eleven chapters provide excellent motivation materials.

WEYMOUTH, C. G. *Science of Living Things*. New York: Henry Holt and Co. 1941. 534 pp. \$1.84. The author's purpose is that of acquainting the pupil with biological principles which will be of great value in solving everyday problems of living. It has been designed to meet the needs of everyday citizens as well as the pupils of science. It is divided into twelve comprehensive units, each presenting a major biological principle. Type laboratory experiments calling for a minimum of laboratory equipment have been included in order to give the pupil a functional understanding of biological principles as well as of making provision for individual differences. Pictures and diagrams add much to pupil understanding.

PAMPHLETS AND WORKBOOKS

Democracy in Action. Council for Democracy, 285 Madison Avenue, New York. A series of popular authoritative pamphlets (forty to fifty pages each) on vital problems facing democracy today and selling for ten cents each. This series includes: *Freedom of Assembly and Anti-Democratic Groups*, *Community Employment Problems Under Defense*, *The Negro and Defense*, *Financing Defense*, *America's Free Schools*, and *The Public and Strikes*. Also an eighty-eight page pamphlet, *Defense on Main Street*, for twenty-five cents which can be used as a guide book in local activities for defense and democracy.

American Isolation Reconsidered. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. 1941. 150 pp. 50 cents. A resource unit containing more than forty pages of basic documents helpful in understanding current issues.

Films on War and American Policy. American Council on Education, Washington, D. C. 1941. 63 pp. 50 cents. A detailed discussion of a select group of films bearing upon war issues and national defense.

Dentistry as a Professional Career. The Council of Dental Education of the American Dental Association, Chicago, Illinois. 1941. 72 pp. A helpful vocational guidance brochure.

All-Out Defense Job Training. Copies can be secured from Edwin A. Lee, Dean, School of Education, University of California, Los Angeles, California. 1941. 48 pp. 25 cents. A report of the Annual Occupational Educational Study-Tour and Conference for School Superintendents.

Uniform Crime Reports. Vol. XII, No. 2. Federal Bureau of Investigation, Washington, D. C. 1941. 64 pp. Free. A report covering the first half of the year 1941.

Health Bulletin for Teachers. Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. School Health Bureau, New York. 40 pp. Contains the health bulletins issued monthly from September, 1939 to June, 1940. A teacher may receive

subsequent monthly health bulletins as they appear by having his name placed on the company's School Health Bureau mailing list.

Booklets available through the United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C., at the indicated prices. 1941.

Trends in Industrial Arts. Pamphlet No. 93. 5c. A report of industrial arts courses in selected cities.

Choose a Book About Things to be Conserved. 20 pp. 5c. Describes readable books about animals, birds, wild flowers, insects, rocks, and minerals.

Democracy in the Summer Camps. 24 pp. 15c. One of the series of pamphlets being published by the United States Office of Education to suggest how schools can contribute to national preparedness. Another pamphlet recently published is entitled, *Education Under Dictatorship and in Democracy*.

Liberty's National Emergency. American Civil Liberties Union, 170 Fifth Avenue, New York. 1941. 80 pp. Free. The story of civil liberty in the crises year 1940-1941.

American Rights. No. 4. American Viewpoint, 883 Broadway, Albany, New York. 1941. 84 pp. 30c. A short review of our fundamental civil, political, and legal rights and guarantees of liberty, together with a study of the Bill of Rights.

Publications of the United States Office of Education, Washington, D. C. Available through the Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.

State Supervisory Programs for the Education of Exceptional Children by E. H. Martens. 1941. 92 pp. 25c. A review of what states have done and are doing with reference to public education for the exceptional child. The efforts of sixteen states which now offer supervisory programs for exceptional children are described.

Financing of Schools as a Function of State Departments of Education by Timon Covert. 1941. 34 pp. 10c. This monograph is concerned with the very important work of state departments of education which has to do with the financing of the public schools. This study analyzes in considerable detail those responsibilities of state departments of education which must be assumed by them since public education is a function of the state governments.

Laws Affecting School Libraries by E. A. Lathrop and W. W. Keesecker. 1941. 136 pp. 20c. This bulletin has been prepared to meet the demand for information about the library rising out of the growing importance of library service to schools and teachers, administrators, librarians, and planning boards who wish to know what specific legislation affecting school libraries is in force, which states have enacted it, and what are the main points covered by the laws. The first part contains summary tables showing the various expressed legal provisions that affect school libraries while the second part is a digest of school library legislation for each state.

Working Your Way Through College by W. J. Greenleaf. 1941. 175 pp. 20c. The problem of financing a college education is one that looms large

before many secondary-school pupils. To the school educators comes the particular problem of giving advice and council to this group of pupils. This bulletin should be a real service to these people. Various ways whereby a pupil may finance his way are described.

Bricklaying by C. A. McGarvey. 1941. 238 pp. 40c. An analysis of the trade is presented in this complete well-illustrated treatise. This publication brings to supervisors and instructors of trade classes and vocational schools, as well as principals, information concerning the use of brick in practically every phase of building construction, and suggestions for teaching the trade to an apprentice. It is primarily a textbook which will meet the needs of instructors of brick-laying apprentice training.

Expressions on Education by Builders of American Democracy. 90 pp. 1941. 20c. Contains quotations on education by each of the presidents of the United States, fourteen statesmen and lawyers, eleven educators and philanthropists, and eighteen leaders in other fields.

Study Effectively by C. G. Wrenn and R. P. Larsen. Stanford University Press, Stanford University, California. 1941. 33 pp. A manual of answers to two major questions which confront every pupil: What are my study weaknesses? How can I improve my study methods? This manual accompanies a study-habit inventory for pupil use composed of twenty-eight items. The price of this inventory form is twenty-five tests for \$1.25, special prices for larger quantities.

Character Education and the Exceptional Child. Child Research Clinic. The Woods School, Langhorne, Pennsylvania. A report of the summer conference on this subject containing discussions by outstanding authorities.

General Education Board. Annual Report, 1940. The Board, 49 West 49th Street, New York. 216 pp. Free. A summary of the Board's activities during the year 1940.

The Story of Western Pines. Western Pine Association. Yeon Building, Portland, Oregon. 1941. 64 pp. Free. Published for junior high-school youths to give them a better understanding of this important natural resource.

Publications of the Texas Commission on Co-ordination in Education. University Station, Austin, Texas. *Democracy and Guidance.* No. 12, September, 1940. 119 pp. *Adjusting Education to the Needs of Youth.* No. 13, April, 1941. These research bulletins are an appraisal of the educational program of the state of Texas in terms of the needs of its youth, giving attention to an analysis of the state-wide testing program conducted in the fall of 1940. This is a co-operative and voluntary program involving the voluntary assistance of hundreds of school people throughout the state.

Publications of the American Council on Public Affairs. 2153 Florida Avenue, N. W., Washington, D. C. 1941.

National Labor Policy and Total Defense. 15 pp. 25c.

Democratic Education. 24 pp. 25c.

Freedom of Assembly and Anti-Democratic Groups. 28 pp. 25c.

Community Employment Problems Under Democracy. 24 pp. 25c.

Economic Mobilization. 43 pp. 75c.

Publications by the American Technical Society, Drexel Avenue, at 58th Street, Chicago, Ill.

A Good Mechanic Seldom Gets Hurt! by H. R. Graman. 1941. 104 pp. 50c.

This pocket-size book will appeal to the pupil as well as the teacher. One of the outstanding features is its organization. Each machine tool in the shop is covered separately and the safety precautions relative to each machine are given in a group. Consequently, when a worker or pupil is handling the drill press, grinder, milling machine, etc., he does not have to fumble through the entire book to find the helpful hints pertaining to that machine. There are helpful illustrations of the various machines showing what-to-do and what-not-to-do in handling them.

Fifty Hints for Teachers of Vocational Subjects. M. R. Bass. 1941. 58 pp. 50c. Revised Edition. This book as its title indicates offers fifty aids to the teacher of vocational subjects. These suggestions are practical and will be found of real help to him in the answering of the question, "What would it take to be a good teacher?"

Machine Trades Blueprint Reading by R. W. Ihne and W. E. Streeter. 1941. 138 pp. \$2.00. (Illustrated). This book is designed to teach the basic information necessary to interpret a blueprint. Problems in shop have been introduced to review the manipulation of numbers, fractions, and decimals. Blueprints used as illustrations and work material have been taken from actual industry. The material in this course was developed and used in the New Castle, Indiana, schools for the past two years.

The Americas by Dr. W. H. Snyder, Upper Montclair, New Jersey. The author, State Teachers College. (Mimeographed). 1941. 9 pp. 25c. A course of study designed for the ninth grade devoted to a survey of Our American Neighborhood or the Western Hemisphere. This course covers twenty-one American Republics and Canada and considers them a complete natural unit. It recognizes the natural and man-made conditions that isolate them from the nations and peoples of the eastern continent, emphasizing the necessity of binding them together internally as one great American neighborhood. One of the aims of the course is that of having the secondary-school pupil as well informed and as appreciative of their American neighbors as they are of Europe. No separate textbook is suggested, but rather the presentation is socialized so that the pupils and the teachers may pioneer together in assembling materials and conducting activities that will bring them to the desired ends. Various activities are suggested together with a bibliography of a Five-Foot-Book-Shelf on the Americas.

School and Public Libraries. National Education Association, Washington, D. C. 1941. 64 pp. 25c. This report is a joint product of the American Library Association and the National Education Association. Part one of this report states the essentials of the service toward which any co-operative library should be directed. Part two presents a summary of a survey of practices and describes procedures as found in ten communities

which were judged outstanding in the cordiality and effectiveness of the working relationships of the schools and the public library. Part three makes proposals for action in developing even more fruitful plans of mutually helpful service to youth by schools and public libraries.

Freedom or Fascism? Yale University Press, New Haven, Connecticut. 1940.

56 pp. 25c. Useful as a discussion guide on this important question telling the straight-forward story of the extreme differences between what it is like to live in a totalitarian country and to live in the United States. It is not propaganda, but rather points the way to a deeper understanding of what American liberty really means.

Know Your Money. United States Secret Service, Treasury Department, Washington, D. C. 1941. 32 pp. Free. This is an attractive, illustrated, and

interestingly written story of money. This pamphlet could profitably become a unit of study in every social studies class in the secondary school.

Tobacco and Health. Associated Press, 347 Madison Avenue, New York. 1941.

48 pp. 35c. Reports on scientific investigations concerning the effect of tobacco on health.

The Big Parade of Stock Cuts and Photos. Cobb Shinn, 721 Union Street,

Indianapolis, Indiana. Contains over 160 pages of cutalogs and proof sheets which will prove attractive to schools desiring to brighten up or enliven their school papers and annuals. It should be a handy book to have available in the secondary school, in order to give some suggestions as to the source of attractive designs to illustrate a certain article or page.

Guidance Manual for Teachers by Paul C. Stevens, and Noble Farquhar.

The authors, Wheat Ridge, Colorado, 1941. 85 pp. \$1.00. This manual describes the guidance program of the Wheat Ridge High School (350 pupil enrolment) and thereby reveals how general principles of guidance may be applied in a specific system. Many elements of procedure and organization which would be applicable in other secondary schools are presented with unusual clarity and directness. Part I of the manual is concerned with an overview of the philosophy and objectives of the guidance program. Part II describes the organization of the staff and of the curriculum in relation to guidance. The materials presented here are much more specific than those found in most textbooks. Part III is concerned with tools and techniques including the testing program, the system of records, the student activity program, community surveys, and pupil participation in planning.

A Survey of the Student-Work Program in Alabama. Published by the

Alabama School Work Council. Noble B. Hendrix, Chairman. Woodlawn High School, Birmingham, Alabama. 1941. 162 pp. This study prepared under the auspices of the National Youth Administration of Alabama is designed to assist schools in making the most effective educational use of available Federal funds. It reports a survey of the practices now operating under the Student-Work Program in the various institutions of the State, and the result of an inquiry among the pupils participating in the program. It is in fact a summary of four questionnaires.

The Education of Free Men in American Democracy, Study Discussion Outline. Educational Policies Commission, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. This Study-Discussion Outline is based on the Commission's newest volume entitled *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy*. It is intended to guide and assist study and discussion groups in seeing more clearly "the contribution which education alone can make to the defense and achievement of human freedom." Single copies gratis. Special prices quoted for quantity orders.

Toward Job Adjustment by Granger, Sobel, and Wilkinson. Published by the Welfare Council of New York City, 1941. 78 pp. 50c. The manual selects important minority groups and from their experience points a lesson applicable to vocational services. The topics discussed include: our mutual problems, the role of the interviewer, techniques for the interviewer, organized efforts to combat job discrimination, guidance programs for minority groups, special programs to aid vocational services, and organized labor and minority groups.

Publications of the Public Affairs Committee, Inc., New York. The following have been published during 1941. They have 32 pages each and sell for 10c.

Labor in the Defense Crisis by T. R. Carskadon. No. 58.

Man Meets Job, How Uncle Sam Helps by P. S. Broughton. No. 57.

What the New Census Means by Stuart Chase. No. 56.

Guns, Planes, and Your Pocketbook by Rolf Nugent. No. 59.

Has America Forgotten? by E. C. Brunawer. 1941. 15 pp. 25c. This is an account of the myths and facts about World War I and II, showing an analysis of the issues of 1917 and those of our present day.

Publications on Visual and Teaching Aids of the New Jersey State Teachers College. Montclair, New Jersey. (Mimeographed). This series of mimeographed pamphlets on visual and other teaching aids will be found quite helpful for possible materials for use in the secondary school.

Visual Aids by Lili Heimers. 1940. 50c. Supplement One, July, 1941, \$1.00.

Visual Aids in the Realm of Geography. 50c.

Visual Aids in the Realm of Chemistry. 50c.

Visual Aids in the Realm of Biology. 50c.

Pan-Americana. 1940. 50c.

Visual Aids for Safety Education. 1941. 15c.

Problems of American Democracy. 1941. 50c.

Aids for the Spanish Teacher. 1941. 76 pp. 50c. (Printed). This annotation lists reference materials which will be found helpful by teachers of Spanish in junior and senior high schools. It includes reference books, periodicals, maps, films, slides, pictures, and other publications and aids arranged by countries, as well as a number of types of school activities; such as, dramatics, clubs, and school journeys.

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Below is listed a number of publications which every school administrator should have as an aid to developing a philosophy of education for his school.

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Issues of Secondary Education. No. 59. Jan. 1936. 310 p. \$1.10. A critical and professional discussion of ten basic problems of secondary education.

Functions of Secondary Education. No. 64. Jan., 1937. 226 p. \$1.10. A discussion of ten commonly agreed upon functions of the secondary school to be considered in connection with the ten issues presented in Bulletin No. 59.

That All May Learn. No. 85. Nov. 1939. 235 p. \$1.10. Information for principals who wish to adjust and adapt the programs of their schools to the educational need of youth.

Student-Council Handbook. No. 89. Mar., 1940. 195 p. \$1.00. A description of the work of 361 Student Councils and of student activity management.

Counseling and the Changing Secondary-School Curriculum. No. 91. May, 1940. 118 p. \$1.00. A description of how thirty-eight schools and communities improve youth education opportunities.

Promising Practices in Secondary Education. No. 92. Oct. 1940. 230 p. \$1.00. Describes over 700 school practices, telling what secondary-school principals are doing to develop ways and means of improving education.

Occupational Adjustment and the School. No. 93. Nov., 1940. 154 p. \$1.00. A study of 914 school-leaving youths of six schools located in two states.

The Summer Workshop in Secondary Education. No. 95. 196 p. \$2.00. Educational theory and practice as reported by Workshop Directors and participants in eight colleges and universities. Also contains the names and addresses of the members of the Association for the year, 1941.

The National Honor Society Handbook. April, 1940. 200 p. \$1.00. Presents a description of numerous activities engaged in by honor societies.

The Relationship of the Federal Government to the Education of Youth of Secondary-School Age, by the National Committee on Co-ordination in Secondary Education. This report discusses what the committee has to say about the Federal Government's present type of youth participation and what they recommend. A 24-page booklet. 1-4 copies, 10 cents each; 5-49, 8 cents each; 50-99, 6 cents each; 100 or more, 5 cents each.

"Suggested Studies in Secondary Education—A List of Problems for Research." 101 p. 25 cents; to members 15 cents. A pamphlet containing pertinent questions suitable for study and research in secondary education.

Talking It Through. 70 p. 15 cents. Tells how to form discussion groups, how to conduct meetings and how to develop the art of discussion.

The School Follows Through. (November). A follow-up and final report of the Occupational Adjustment Study reported in BULLETIN 93. Price \$1.00.

Student Activities. (December). Reports on the varied pupil activities as they operate in specific schools. Price \$1.00.

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